Education Finance in Egypt

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National Team Report on Education Finance in Egypt

Economic, Social and Political Contexts

Egypt and Human Civilization

In her book *Education in Egypt*, Judith Cochran states, 'Education in Egypt is and has always been a major inspirer of the economic and social behaviour both in the Middle East and the Islamic World in its entity' (Cochran 1986:9). A statement echoed by other scholars of ancient, modern and contemporary Egyptian history.

Throughout more than seven millennia, educational institutions in Egypt, especially of higher education, have served as centres of knowledge and culture. In ancient Egypt the University of Oun served as the heart of advanced sciences such as mathematics, astronomy, physics, medicine and mummification. Prominent figures of the past such as Plato, Solon, Phithagorth and others attended this university. More than a millennium ago, al Azhar University assumed a position of eminence and served as the centre of Islamic sciences and thought (Razek and Zaher 1991).

Contemporary history refers to the reinvigoration of the Egyptian education and the restoration of the liberty of directing educational policies after partial independence in 1922. A number of educational reforms attempts were made at various educational levels.

The real breakthrough in the Egyptian and Arab education came with the 1952 revolution, which made free education available to all. At that time, Egypt pursued a policy of education expansion. Increasing resources were allocated intensively to school construction throughout the country. This was reflected in a big increase in enrolment rates at all education levels.

Provision of free education at all levels had also a positive impact on equal educational opportunities. An increasing proportion of low-income group children were able to reach higher education, studies also revealed

that education was a strong factor of upward social mobility during the Nasser era. In the period 1976/77-1992/93 the total number of students increased from about 5.6 million to 12.5 million (an increase of 94 per cent) although the number of female students showed a smaller increase (64 per cent) during the same period.

The total number of schools also increased from 1976 to 1992/93 matching or surpassing the increase in the number of students (95 per cent in 1990/91 while the increase in the number of students was 83 per cent during the same year) until 1992/93 which witnessed a decrease in the number of schools. This could have resulted from the earthquake of 12 October 1992 during which 1087 schools were completely demolished, 2301 schools partly demolished and 3569 schools in need of restoration. The number of classes did not match the number of schools, thus while schools increased by 95 per cent during the period 1976/77-1992/93, classes only increased by 73 per cent and the increase in the number of students was only 83 per cent. The explanation for this was that some new schools were big enough only to hold one class as they had just been converted from a house, for example. Since the beginning of the 1990s, Egypt increased the allocation of funds for social services. This included providing educational, health, cultural, social and religious services, and subsidizing basic commodities to targeted groups. In addition, notable attention was directed to the welfare of pensioners (Egypt HDR 1977/98). However, Egypt is an example of modest human development performance compared to its per capita and to its growing spending on social sectors.

It is believed that the education sector is highly responsible for the low ranking of Egypt's Human Development Index (HDI), compared to other countries with similar, or even lower GDP and public spending on education. This is mainly due to the high rate of illiteracy in Egypt. This poor performance of the education sector is confusing, given that the Egyptian Government has demonstrated a strong commitment to prioritising education as a primary goal for the development of human resources, and has defined 'Education as the National project of the Nineties'. Public education expenditures increased by 55 per cent in real terms during 1991-1997 (averaging about 8 per cent annually). The proportion of the government's budget directed to education increased from 12 to 20 per cent, and the share of education to GDP increased from 4.8 per cent in 1990 to 5.2 per cent in 1997.

The contrast between the high level of public spending on education and the poor achievement of the education sector raises several questions:

- What are the determinants of education finance in Egypt?
- What are the problems of finance hindering the performance of the education sector?
- What are the options for reforming the financing of education in Egypt?

The objective of this report is to investigate the problems of finance, which have hindered the effectiveness of the education sector in Egypt, as, well as their implications on the education system. It will recommend some options for reform concerning education financing in Egypt.

Population

Estimates made by the UNDP indicate that the population of Egypt by 1999 stood at 66.7 million, and is expected to reach 84.4 million by the year 2015 (UNDP 2001: 126). Egypt is strategically located in the north-eastern corner of the African continent and the south-western corner of Asia. Egypt overlooks the Mediterranean and the Red Sea and shares borders with Sudan, Libya and the Palestinian occupied territories. Its area extends from a longitude of 55° to 37° east and a latitude of 22° to 37° to the north. The total surface area amounts to 1,001,710 square kilometres (around 386,660 square miles). Its lands are bisected by the River Nile into the eastern desert, which covers around 22 per cent of the total area, and the western desert covering around 68 per cent. The Nile valley and the delta cover around 4 per cent, while the rest is occupied by the Sinai Peninsula.

Population Growth Rates

According to official records, the first population census was carried out in Egypt in 1800, where the total population was estimated at 2.5 million. A number of censuses were carried out in the mid-nineteenth century, the last census of population and buildings was carried out in 1996. Table 1 indicates the development of population growth rates in Egypt throughout the twentieth century as well as the annual growth rates.

Egypt's population increased fivefold within less than a century, from 11.2 million in 1907 to 61.3 million in 1998. Egypt has an overpopulation problem, in spite of its considerable area compared to its population, noting that around 95 per cent of the total population is concentrated in around 5.5 per cent of the area (the Nile valley and the delta, as well as a number of coastal areas and oases), rendering its agricultural areas some of the world's most densely populated regions (Mahrous 1994). Egypt has tackled this problem by reclaiming desert lands, as well as through a number of industrial projects, building of new cities and increasing its

production. This overpopulation problem could be attributed to an increase in birth rates coupled with lower mortality rates. In 1998 Egypt's birth rates were 27.5 per thousand, while the death rates for the same year were 6.5 per thousand due to the progress made in the fields of health and social care, as well as the increased levels of medical awareness among the members of society.

Table 1: Development of Population Growth Rates Throughout the 20th Century

Year	Population in millions	Annual Growth Rates
1907	11.2	1.6
1917	12.7	1.3
1927	14.2	1.1
1937	15.9	1.8
1947	19.0	2.6
1960	27.1	2.5
1970	33.3	-
1976	36.6	2.8
1986	48.3	2.1
1996	59.3	-
1998	61.3	

Source: Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics (CAPMAS) p.9

Infant Mortality Rate

Statistics indicate that medical conditions are improving, especially for children, noting that the infant mortality rates (per 1000 living infants) decreased from 157 infants in 1970 to 41 in 1999, a positive indicator of the increased health level among children, compared to other African nations. Similar rates recorded in Cameroon showed a decrease in infant mortality rates from 100 in 1970 to 81, while in Tanzania the rates decreased from 129 to 90, and in Senegal from 164 to 68. Kenya, on the other hand, witnessed only limited decrease from 96 to 76. The average infant mortality rate in developing nations in 1999 amounted to 61 (see UNDP 2001).

The mortality rate among children below the age of five decreased considerably exceeding most nations, marking a decrease in the mortality rates of children below the age of five (per 1000 living children) from 235 in 1970 to around 52 in 1999. The world average for the year 1999 was 80 children, while the figure for sub-Saharan Africa stood at 172, and that for the Arab nations stood at 59 children (UNDP 2001).

Population Density

According to the estimates made by CAPMAS, Egypt's population is distributed at a density rate of 61.5/km². Excluding the desert areas, the population density amounts to 1743 persons/km², a very high density, concentrated in the larger cities, the coastal areas and the northern governorates, while decreasing considerably in Upper Egypt and border governorates (Table 2).

Table 2: Distribution of Egypt's Population in Terms of Area and Population Density

Areas & Governorates	Land Area in km² (1998)	Population Density per km (1998)	Population Density*
Cairo	214.2	3824.0	-
Alexandria	2,679.4	1288.0	10981
Port Said	72.1	6775.0	-
Suez	17,840.4	24.0	1406
Urban Governorates	20,803.2	548.0	12564
Lower Egypt	27,723.2	963.0	1203
Upper Egypt	96,193.1	333.0	1850
Border Governorates	853,016.0	1.0	-
Egypt	9,977,380.0	61.5	1743

Source: The National Planning Institute: Human Development Report 1998-99.
Note: * excluding urban areas

Cairo and Port Said are the most densely populated cities in Egypt, the population density in Cairo reaching up to 33000 persons per square kilometre. There are areas where the population density stands at 24 persons per square kilometre. The population density increases when excluding the desert areas, reaching up to 1406 persons per square kilometre. Border governorates have notably lower population densities, which reach down to one person per square kilometre (Table 2).

Egypt suffers from an uneven population distribution which is greatly concentrated in the Nile delta or what is known as Lower Egypt, stretching from southern Cairo to the Mediterranean. Varying degrees of population densities are witnessed in Upper Egypt stretching from Halfa to the south of Cairo. A very low population density characterises the eastern desert representing 28 per cent of Egypt's total area and extending from the Nile valley to Egypt's eastern borders along the shores of the Red Sea.

The Labour Force

The labour force composed of illiterates and those who are barely able to read and write was reduced from 77 per cent in 1976 to 54 per cent in 1986, and decreased further to 50 per cent in 1996. Coupled with this decrease is an increase in the labour force composed of those who have had primary and secondary education from 15 per cent in 1976 to 26 per cent in 1986 and then further to 32 per cent in 1996. The ratio of university graduates to the total labour force was 4.7 per cent in 1976, increasing to 8 per cent in 1986 and then to 12.2 per cent in 1996.

Table 3: Development of Labour Force According to Education Standard During the Three Official Censuses (1976, 1986 and 1996)

Educational Standard	Total		
	1976	1986	1996
Illiterates	52.35	44.91	32.79
Able to read and write	24.86	17.84	17.44
Primary Education	4.09	1.75	2.48
Below Secondary Education	2.25	3.15	3.16
Secondary Education	9.07	21.79	27.15
Higher than Secondary Education	0.81	2.21	4.40
University	4.79	8.0	12.20
Higher than University Education	0.19	0.22	0.32
Unidentified	1.6	0.11	-
Total %	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number in Thousands	10,432	13,077	17,147

CAPMAS: 1978, Table 11, pp. 145-146; 1989, Table 18 p.90; 1999, Table 21.
Remarks: The 1986 data according to the age group (12 and above)
Quoted from: Maged Othman et al.

Labour Force in the Educational Sector

In 2000/01, the total labour force in the educational sector (both private and public) in Egypt was about one and a half million persons. Basic and secondary education embraces more than half of the total labour force in the educational sector (52.1 per cent), while the percentage of those engaged in technical high schools (industrial/agricultural/commercial) are 16.6 per cent of the total labour force engaged in the educational sector. Teachers make up for around 55 per cent of the total labour force. When adding directors and deputies it goes up to 61 per cent of the total educational labour force. Engineers, employees, and workers occupy the rest (see Table 4).

Table 4: Distribution of Labour Force in Pre-University Education Levels in 2000/2001*

Stage	Teachers		Directors & Full-time Deputies	Employees		Workers & others		Total	
Pre-primary education	17,327	(2.3)	-	-	-	-	-	17327	(1.3)
Primary Education	320,828	(40.9)	39,229	140,416	(45.8)	121,319	(49.8)	582,563	(43.1)
Preparatory Education	208,838	(26.6)	27,091	102,459	(33.5)	63,722	(26.1)	37,563	(30.1)
General Secondary Schools	84,963	(10.8)	9,919	29,746	(9.7)	18,643	(7.7)	133,352	(9.9)
Industrial Secondary Schools	88,304	(11.3)	4,962	15,153	(4.9)	21,222	(8.7)	124,679	(9.1)
Agricultural Secondary Schools	13,662	(1.7)	186	4,176	(1.4)	4,983	(2)	22,821	(1.7)
Commercial Secondary Schools	50,276	(6.4)	4,645	14,371	(4.7)	13,681	(5.7)	78,328	(5.8)
Total	78,198	(100.0)	86,032	306,321	(100.0)	24,357	(100.0)	1,334,089	(100.0)

Source: The General Department of Information and Computers Pre-College Educational Statistics for the year 2000/2001 (Cairo, Ministry of Education, 1991, pp. (121-185)

Note: * Percentages in brackets.

Language

Egypt has only one language, Arabic, which is the official language of the nation.

Per Capita Gross Domestic Product

Egypt is one of the lower middle-income nations, it had a gross domestic product of 89.1 billion dollars in 1999, which is 214.2 billion LE according to the purchasing power in that year. The per capita share of the GDP according to the purchasing power was US$ 3,420 in that year (Human Development Report, 2000 and 2001).

At any rate, the per capita share of the real gross domestic product (according to the purchasing power of the dollar) is relatively low compared to other developing nations, or to nations, which have an average human development (Table 5).

Table 5: Development of Per Capita Gross Domestic Product (in dollars)

The Indicator	Egypt	Nations with Average Human Development	Developing Nations	Industrial Nations
1980	731	1,430	1,170	10,040
1985	890	1,900	1,520	13,060
1990	971	2,660	2,170	18,770
1998	1,146	3,460	3,260	23,900
Per Capita share of the real GDP				
The poorest 20 per cent (1987-1998)	9.8	-	-	-
The wealthiest 20 per cent (1987-1998)	39			

Source: *Human Development Report*, 2000, pp. 179-181

GDP Growth Rate

Notwithstanding the increase in the total gross domestic product (GDP) in recent years (amounting to LE 268429) for both the public and private sectors (74232 and 194197 respectively) for 1998/99 and (76113 for the public sector and 209734 for the private sector) for 1999/2000 (see CAPMAS 2001: 267), a deeper look into the state of the GDP for the period 1975 to 1999 indicates that this rate and the per capita share is noticeably lower.

Throughout that period, the growth rate of the per capita share of the GDP was 2.9 per cent, and was reduced even lower to 2.4 per cent from 1990 to 1999 (*Human Development Report* 2001: 180).

A Historical Perspective on Educational Policies

Historical Evolution

The educational system is not isolated from its society. It interacts directly and indirectly with the social order, as well as the political, economic and social institutions. The philosophy of education in any society is a reflection of the general philosophy of that society. It is quite difficult to study education in a certain society within a specific time frame, without addressing the political, economic and social conditions of this society. It is also difficult to study a society without tackling issues of education, in view of the strong interrelation between the two.

Egyptian modern society is a model manifesting the correlation between political, economic and social systems and the changes affecting them, especially with respect to their reflection on the educational system, its philosophy, curricula and funding. The Egyptian society was subjected throughout its history, which extended over a century and a half, to a score of internal and external influences, which had direct impact on the educational system. Egypt witnessed four different regimes, each distinct from the other politically, economically, socially and subsequently educationally. Those four epochs were:

- The reign of Mohamed Ali (from 1805 till 1849)
- The successors of Mohamed Ali (1849–1882)
- The British Occupation (1882–1922)
- Partial Independence (1923–1952)

The Reign of Mohamed Ali (1805–1849)

Notwithstanding the economic and political colonial aspirations of the French military campaign, which settled in Egypt from 1798 till 1801, this epoch acted as a torchlight, helping Egypt and the Egyptians out of the isolation imposed on them during medieval times. Colonial powers turned their attention to the unique strategic position, which Egypt enjoys, amidst an increased nationalist feeling among the Egyptians, who started to look upon Europe as a model to be followed in terms of culture, democracy and independence.

It was after this era that Mohamed Ali, the Albanian officer, assumed the rule of the country in 1805. He had his own personal aspirations, culminating in an independent modern state ruled by him and his descendants, based on a modern army, as well as a technical management inspired by western civilisation. Mohamed Ali considered education as the only way of meeting his military and civilian needs on the one hand, and of getting rid of the medieval rigidity and conservatism, on the other. He controlled the educational policy to fulfil his political, military and economic aspirations, sending scores of academic delegations in different fields to western Europe, the number of the students sent abroad amounting to 339 by the end of his reign. He also called for foreign experts and professors to contribute their ideas and expertise, and commissioned the translation of a host of scientific books and references into Arabic. He constructed an educational system based on the European model side by side with the traditional educational system based on the religious institutions. His primary focus was the establishment of higher specialised schools with western orientations, followed by preparatory and primary schools (Massiolos & Jarrar 1988).

Some negative aspects of Mohamed Ali's educational policy were that he considered education as one of the state's duties, to be directed in accordance with the interests of the state. The finance of education was centralised. Mohamed Ali's educational policies realized the value and salience of the role played by education in development and progress. These policies also related education to the demands of the labour market and proper attention was paid to the education of the Egyptian citizenry, especially girls (General Organization for Illiteracy and Adult Education (GOIAE 1996).

The Descendants of Mohamed Ali (1849–1882)

After the Mohamed Ali era which attempted to gain total independence and to emulate the modern European civilisation, started the reign of his descendants, which extended over about 33 years. Egypt was ruled during that era by four members of the Mohamed Ali family: Abbas, Said, Ismail and Tawfik. This era marked the transformation of Egypt from a totally independent nation into one subjected to total occupation, since Britain had hardened its grip and imposed total political, military and economic control on the country in 1882.

The personal view of the ruler (Khediwe) towards Mohamed Ali's educational policies also had their toll. Both Abbas and Said believed that 'an ignorant people are easier to rule than an educated one, we do

not educate sons of peasants' (GOIAE 1996). In accordance with this principle, the department of schooling was abolished and a host of schools were shut down, while the budget allocated for education was cut down until it reached only around LE 6000,00 by the end of the reign of Said. Both Abbas and Said followed this educational policy on the pretext of rationalising expenses.

Khediwe Ismail positively looked upon educating the Egyptian citizenry and did his best to revive interest in education, with the help of an educational elite. He reopened some of the schools shut down earlier and established new ones at all levels and reopened the department of schooling. He sent academic delegations abroad and reinstated free education. His reign witnessed the establishment of the first school for teachers in 1871, as well as two girls' schools (1872–1874). However, due to the economic crisis as a result of the borrowing policies from Europe, amassing a foreign debt of 126,354,260 Pound Sterling in 1878, educational reforms came to a halt, particularly since the economic crisis resulted in an increased foreign interference in Egypt's affairs, leading eventually to Britain's occupation of Egypt in 1882.

The British Occupation (1882-1922)

From the moment the British set foot in Egypt, they started to implement their colonial policies by imposing direct control on the political, military, economic and cultural life in Egypt. They assigned a high commissioner in Egypt and British consultants in every government ministry and institution. They had the upper hand in the decision-making process, and they played a role in disbanding the army and in tying the Egyptian economy to the British one through a relationship of dependency, a task made easy through facilitating the control of foreign capital on the economy, as well as encouraging the agricultural sector at the expense of industry, exploiting Egypt's natural and economic resources. Those policies were reflected on the class-system, which emerged in the Egyptian society, as well as the living standard.

The influential political powers were represented in the royal palace, the occupational forces, the large landowners and the political parties. The British colonial administration used education to fulfil their colonial aspirations, neglecting the education of the Egyptians. They thus restricted access to state schools and closed a number of them, leaving only three high schools in the whole country by 1893 (Faksh 1969: 3).

Technical education was neglected, reduced and confined to the training of mediocre technicians and civil servants. The establishment of a natio-

nal university was adamantly rejected, English culture was imposed and English used as the language of education instead of Arabic. Efforts were made to expand foreign and private education. These policies deprived the majority of Egyptians of education, especially the sons and daughters of peasants, who represented around 70.3 per cent of the total labour force in the Egyptian society. Illiteracy rates in 1907 rose to 92.7 per cent (Galal 1984: 65). Egyptian intellectuals who had been educated both abroad and in al Azhar reacted to the educational policies implemented by the colonial administration and succeeded in their efforts to provide the people with education, especially the disadvantaged poor and girls.

Partial Independence (1922–1953)

After the 1919 revolution, British colonial authorities proclaimed the partial independence of Egypt in 1922. And after the July 23rd revolution of 1952, Egypt became an independent nation ruled by a nationalist Egyptian government and a democratic state representing the people and resting on the principles laid down by the first Egyptian constitution formulated in 1923 (Hyde 1978:1).

Egypt's new government regarded education as a means of building a democratic society and asserting the principles of social justice and equality for the majority of the population comprising workers and peasants. The government adopted free and compulsory education, especially in the primary phases (Kerr 1965: 173) as stipulated in Article No. 19 of 1923, to tackle the problem of illiteracy. The Egyptian government increased the number of schools, and primary school students increased subsequently from 324000 in 1913 to 942000 in 1933 and to 1,900,000 in 1951. Children enrolled in primary schools increased to 30 per cent of their age group in 1951 (Hyde 1978: 3).

Politically, and amidst the proclamation of Egypt's independence in 1923, British troops remained in the Suez Canal area. The British continued their interference in the internal affairs of the country and the ruling dynasty, supported by influential foreigners and Egyptians (feudalists and capitalists) remained the sole power holders.

At the economic level, Egypt's society suffered from feudalism, monopoly and the control of foreign and national capitalists of the industry and commerce. Around 6 per cent of the population owned 65 per cent of the agricultural land, while 94 per cent of the population owned 35 per cent of the land. In the field of industry and commerce, 61 per cent of the capital in 1948 was foreign, while 38 per cent of Egypt's debts were foreign

debts. President Gamal Abdul Nasser referred to the Egyptian society during that phase as the society of the 0.05 per cent, meaning that only 0.05 per cent of the total population owned more than 90 per cent of the nation's wealth and resources (El Shikhaiby 1983:5).

Socially, Egyptian society suffered from the rigid class system with a small ruling elite in control of power, wealth and authority and comprising the ruling dynasty, the large landowners and the foreign and Egyptian capitalists, and the great majority of the Egyptian people (workers, peasants, craftsmen, civil servants and intellectuals). The latter had no access to wealth and had to endure poverty, ignorance and disease. Around 80 per cent of the Egyptians (5 years and above) were illiterate in 1937, a percentage, which remained unchanged until 1947 (Lerguel 1962:102).

Under these conditions, education did not seem to provide equal opportunities, but served as a tool used by the ruling elite to preserve the status quo. A set of policies witnessed this purpose such as: the duality of education provided at the primary phase, as there were primary schools for the sons of rich families who could afford the fees, and whose students were about 15 per cent of the total number of students at the primary stage. Those schools provided an opening to high schools and university education and henceforth more prestigious and highly paid jobs. There were free primary four-year schools designed for the sons of needy families. Those were dead-end roads, allowing their graduates either to enrol at al Azhar, or in secondary technical schools or to revert to the cotton fields and back to illiteracy (Faksh 1976: 238).

Education in the private and foreign high schools was expensive. Statistics of 1942/43 indicated that 25 per cent of the pre-secondary school student body, and 50 per cent of the secondary school students were enrolled in those foreign schools.

Educational Policies in the Second Half of the 20th Century

The July 23rd, 1952 Revolution

The July revolution in 1952 led to the adoption of principles which aimed at ridding society of injustice and corruption represented by the end of colonialism and the almost a century and a half rule of the Mohamed Ali dynasty, as well as liberation from the British forces which lurked in the Suez Canal area in 1954, the elimination of the feudalist class through land reform laws that put a ceiling on the amount of agricultural land owned by both families and individuals. Confiscated lands were redistributed to the peasants.

The Egyptian government started to rebuild the society in accordance with the principles of human rights, religion and the interests of the majority of the people. To attain equal educational opportunities, most scholars and academics agree on four major principles that should be considered:

i) The need to give children from low-income families, rural areas, remote areas or random settlements of the cities, equal opportunities to education, allowing them to continue receiving educational services in accordance with their capabilities, efforts and inclinations. Each of them entitled to a job, in accordance with his degree or educational achievements.
ii) The national democratic government should offer its educational services and resources to all citizens, including the supervision and financing of education, the just allocation of services in accordance with the educational needs of individuals, schools and educational departments, as well as the realistic implementation of compulsory and free education, insuring that all students receive equal treatment.
iii) The school– as a state educational institution – should note its obligation to open up its doors to all members of society to achieve the principle of equity, and to offer its services to all, preparing them for employment which is congruent with their inclinations and potentials, to help promote comprehensive development.
iv) The selection and classification of students at the various stages and types of education should proceed objectively, without biases and prejudices, to ensure that each individual receives his fair and legitimate right to education and employment.

The 1956 constitution indicated that all Egyptians have a right to education, the state being the sole and direct sponsor of the educational process. Education would be free in all government schools (El-Shikhaiby 1983: 12). In 1961, the late President Gamal Abdul Nasser proclaimed that all phases of education—including college education—would be free of charge to all Egyptian citizens, to achieve the principle of equal opportunities. Law No. 68 of 1968, as well as the 1971 constitution indicated that education—at all stages—is a legitimate right for all Egyptians.

The strategy for developing education in 1987 reiterated that the provision of equal opportunities to various groups at all education levels is imperative, which is designed to narrow class differences among students and the resulting consequences in terms of the ability to comprehend the curricula. The strategy also assured that all students would obtain basic education, comprising primary and preparatory education. This nine-year

phase would be compulsory for every citizen from 1981/82.

The Mubarak national programme for 1991/1996 asserted that 'any change in the educational policy should by no means compromise the principle of equal opportunity, which has become part and parcel of the awareness of the Egyptian people, and one of the gains cherished and valued by the people' (MOE 1996). To achieve this, the MOE passed Law No. 210 of 1953 regarding the organization of primary education (Ibrahim 1986: 9), which called for the unification of primary education, making it compulsory for all children 6–12 years old, as well as exempting students from school fees and omitting the teaching of a foreign language at this stage. Law No. 55 of 1957 (MOE 27) separated the preparatory stage from both the primary and the secondary schools, turning it into a separate phase, which extends over 3 years. This law designated the secondary school phase as the stage of preparation of the individual for college education. Law No. 68 of 1968 (MOE 1968) also set the goal of the Secondary School Final Exam (Thanaweyya Amma) as the general preparation of students both mentally, physically, socially and nationally and to equip them with the necessary knowledge, arts and practical skills which would enable them to resume their studies at the universities.

Other important factors were the major scientific and technological progress witnessed everywhere in the world, as well as the political, economic and social powers taking the reins of society (Naim: 3). A number of givens rested at the bottom of the general educational policies up till the early seventies, and which were derived from a score of constitutional provisions, which reflected the reality, and aspirations of the Egyptian people. Among those givens is that modern education continues throughout an individual's life span. It is part and parcel of the total social system, and contributes to the making of the rapidly changing modern citizen (MOE: 233-235). The major outlines of the educational policy, which became prevalent during that phase, could be summarised as follows:

> The use of planning, the contribution of education to the development plans, as well as the materialization of the principle of equal educational opportunities, the provision of free education at all levels, and the efforts to develop the curricula to cope with recent developments, proclaiming Arabic as the national language (Naim: 304–405), central planning and decentralized implementation, the reinforcement of the principle of shared leadership, diversified studies in accordance with the potential of students, concern with the eradication of illiteracy (Arab Republic of Egypt: 17-18), increased

numbers of students at various educational levels. The educational policies in the aftermath of the socialist laws of 1961 asserted that planning education in accordance with the nation's need for labour is imperative (Ali, p. 139).

The Rectification Movement and the Peace Process

Since the early seventies, the Egyptian society has witnessed political and military events, which played a role in changing the social environment, a fact that was reflected in the public educational policy. Among those events were:

1. The beginning of the phase known as the rectification revolution on May 15, 1971 to modify the path of the July 1952 revolution.
2. Defining the main elements of the Egyptian society by the 1971 Constitution.
3. The move towards peace after the military and political redemption of Egypt in the aftermath of October war in 1973, and the peace initiative made by late President Mohamed Anwar Sadat and the succeeding peace accords signed with Israel.
4. Opening up Egypt's society to the world and the adoption by the state of an economic open door policy in 1974, in an attempt to rectify the economic path.
5. The issuance of law No. 43 in 1979 regarding local authorities in assuming the responsibility of constructing, equipping and administering various schools, within the framework of national educational policies and plans.
6. The end of the one-party system and the launching of a multi-party system in 1986 (Fares: 165).

Meanwhile, the 1980s and 1990s witnessed drastic changes in the class structure of society, as a result of the implementation of an economic open door policy. The influence of a parasitic capitalism soared amidst widespread propaganda, leading to the alienation and marginalisation of former elites. A score of regional developments also took place, such as the resolution reached by the Arab League Council to reinstate the Arab League back to its original headquarters in Cairo in 1990, as well as the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait, which had considerable and direct impact on the Egyptian economy and society, noting that the number of Egyptian expatriates returning from the Gulf region were around 674,000 in January 1991 (The General Information Organization 1991: 64-65).

Liberalisation and Privatisation Policies

The beginning of the seventies witnessed a number of educational plans, represented mainly by the 10-year plan 1972/73–1981/82, which comprised the basics of the educational policies during that decade. The five-year plan of 1982/87–1988-91/92 indicated the importance of developing all types of education and of expanding official experimental language schools. It aimed at distributing the student body over the general high and technical schools to allocate the major share to the various types of technical schooling: industrial, agricultural or commercial (Gad: 86).

Law No. 139 was issued in 1981 regarding the development of basic education, and the proclamation of the educational policies in Egypt was made public in 1985 (MOE 1985), which aimed at gradually upgrading the system's capacity to accommodate school-age children to fulfil the principle of equal educational opportunities, make balance between the different types of education at the secondary-school level, upgrade the level of educational services offered to the students, reinforce local administration and self-help efforts through a plan which aimed to build school buildings, train teaching staff, upgrade the curricula and dedicate more attention to school activities. The document proclaiming the development of the educational strategy and the implementation plan was issued in 1989 (Sorour: 69-76). It spelled out the basic features of the National Conference for Education, held in July 1987.

There was also an attempt to upgrade the quality of the education system to raise efficiency and effectiveness by upgrading teachers and the entire secondary-school educational system. This strategy revolved around the principles of comprehensive national development, providing infrastructure and the technical mechanisms of implementation, coordinating the education sectors, emphasising self-education, eradicating illiteracy and encouraging adult education, as well as making an effort to give girls a fair share in the educational process, and finally the disentanglement of the wages from the academic degree obtained.

The Education System

Structure

The education system in Egypt has three levels:

i) The basic level (primary and general or technical preparatory education)
ii) The general or technical secondary-school level

iii) The higher education level

The general education (both basic and secondary) extends over 11 years from the age of 6 to 17, eight years of which fall into the basic education category. A detailed description of the levels of education in Egypt follows.

Pre-school level

Pre-school education falls under the ministry of education and the ministry of social affairs. It is a two-year non-compulsory independent educational phase which admits children aged between four and six years. It prepares them for the basic education phase (National Center for Educational Research and development (NCERD 1990:1).

A pre-school teacher's faculty affiliated to neighbouring universities, was established. A general department of Kindergarten was established, affiliated to the central department of basic education at the MOE.

Basic Education level

Egypt's basic education level is compulsory. It is divided into two levels

The first level: first three school years, where the child acquires the basic reading and writing skills, as well as the principles of mathematics and religion.

The second level: fourth and fifth years, aims at asserting the students' capability of putting into practice the skills acquired previously and of implementing those skills in their daily life, thus preventing a relapse into illiteracy.

Education is carried out in both Arabic and English, noting the existence of two types of schools: Arabic and language schools (public and private). Those schools cover the same curricula, adding eight periods of the first foreign language schools (private and public) as per the school plan of this phase.

The second phase (preparatory) of basic education

This phase is also subdivided into general preparatory and vocational preparatory schooling, each for a period of three years. The general preparatory level curriculum provides students with cultural and scientific information, enabling them to pursue their general secondary or technical education. Vocational schools prepare students for the world of work and production. They offer specialised training: industrial and agricultural training for boys and household training for girls. Preparatory schools are affiliated to the ministry, such as the sports experimental schools and the schools for children with special needs (NCERD 1990: 7-8).

Private preparatory schools (Arabic and language schools) operate side by side with the public preparatory schools. A prerequisite to the admission to private or experimental language schools affiliated to MOE is a high-level language exam. The second phase of the preparatory schooling offers a distinct school curriculum, noting the slight differences which distinguish between the curricula and topics covered by the special and the vocational preparatory schooling and the athletic education preparatory schools (Table 6).

Secondary Education

Secondary education is subdivided into two categories: academic and technical education. The evaluation system, curriculum and educational plans differ from one type to another. Technical education covers industrial, agricultural and commercial schools. Students who have completed their basic education are admitted here according to their passing grades, the student's age is taken into account as well. This three-year stage aims at preparing the students for life as well as for higher and university education, contribution to public life and the assertion and reinforcement of religious, moral and national values (NCERD 1990: 710–11).

General secondary education has two systems, the first provides a unified curriculum during the first and second years, allowing them in the third year to choose between the scientific and literary branches. As of 1992/93 the school plan comprised four groups of courses: the basic and compulsory courses (languages, religion and sports), the optional courses, subdivided into two groups of materials, where the student had to select from each respectively, and finally the higher level courses, where the student was to study one or two courses. The second secondary school system was introduced to develop the former system and is organized by law No. 2 of 1994, which abolished the former branching system and instated a new system, which has compulsory and optional courses. The High School exam has two stages, the first part is held at the end of the second year, while the second is held at the end of the third year. This law was applied to the students enrolled in the first year of the general secondary schools in 1993/94. The school plan for general secondary schools is outlined in Table 7.

Technical Education

Technical education ranges from three to five years. Students are enrolled after obtaining a certificate on completion of their basic education. Technical education covers industrial, agricultural and commercial

Table 6: School Curriculum for the First and Second Phases of Basic Education for the School Year 1993/94

Material	Primary Phase								Preparatory Phase		
	Arabic Schools			Public & Private Schools					Preparatory Vocational Schools		
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	1st	2nd	3rd
1 Religion	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	6	2	2
2 Arabic	10	10	10	10	10	6	6	6	2	3	3
3 First Foreign Language	-	-	-	-	-	5	5	5	2	2	2
4 Second Foreign Language	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5 Mathematics	6	6	6	6	6	5	5	5	2	1	1
6 Social Studies	-	-	-	2	2	3	3	3	2	2	2
7 General Information &	3	3	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Activities									2	2	2
8 Science & Health Studies	-	-	-	2	4	4	4	4	2	2	2
9 Arts	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
10 Sports	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
11 Music	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
12 Science & Technology	-	-	-	2	2	4	4	4	20	20	20
Total											
	27	27	30	30	32	34	34	34	40	40	40

Note: * Sport Experimental Schools have the Schools have the same curricula as the general education schools,

8 extra periods of sports are added weekly.

schools. It has a three-year technical secondary education, and a five-year technical education level. The three-year technical secondary education trains 'technicians' in industry, agriculture, commerce, management and services and develops the artistic talents of the students. The five-year technical education trains the 'first technician' in industry, agriculture, commerce and services. Secondary technical education accommodates around 70 per cent of all students admitted at the secondary stage. About 47 per cent are enrolled in industrial schools, 13 per cent in agricultural schools and 40 per cent in commercial schools (NCERD: 29).

Non-Formal Education (Vocational Training)

Vocational training equips individuals with practical occupational skills. It also contributes to the economic development process, by expanding employment opportunities and developing the individual's productivity. However, efforts to design a national plan for vocational training have not been successful.

Vocational training in Egypt falls under the Ministry of Labour Force and Training, Ministry of Industry and Mineral Wealth, Ministry of Electricity and Energy, Ministry of Transport and Transportation, Ministry of Building and Construction, Ministry of Petroleum, and Ministry of Agriculture, among others.

Prospects of Vocational Training

The importance of vocational training and its role in the preparation of skilled labour could be deduced from the results of vocational training as follows:

1. Short term training programmes, which involve the preparation of semi-skilled labour to allow them to practice specific skills.
2. New labour training programmes at production units to acquaint them with the details of the technical process and the working system.
3. Upgrading programmes to improve the skills to cope with the change in the production systems and to introduce new technologies, or to qualify the labourers to assume higher positions that require more skills and information.

Student Enrolment (Quality Indicators)

These are indicators, which refer to the extent of fairness and equal opportunity accessible within the education system, and the system's capability of meeting social demand. A preview of the most important indicators follows.

Table 7: School Curriculum for 2nd and 3rd Grades of General Secondary Stage

The First Stage (The Second Year Of the General Secondary Education)

Courses	No. of classes
First: Compulsory Courses	**2**
Religion (1)	6
Arabic Language (1)	6
First Foreign Language (1)	6
Second Foreign Language	1
Second: Optional (specialized courses)	
The student is to select only three out of the following courses:	
Chemistry	5
Biology	5
Mathematics (1)	5
Geography	5
Psychology and Sociology	5
Geology and Environmental Sciences	5
The total no. of classes	36
Third: The High Level Courses (Optional)	
Biology	1
Geography	1

The Second Stage (The Third Year of the General Secondary Education)

Courses	No. of classes
First: Compulsory Courses	**2**
Religion (2)	6
Arabic Language (2)	6
First Foreign Language (2)	1
National Studies Sports	2
Second: (1) Optional (specialized courses)	
The student is to select only two out of the followingcourses:	
Physics	5
Mathematics (2)	5
History	5
Philosophy and Logic	5
Economics and Statistics	5
(2) Applied Courses (compulsory)	
The student is to select only one out of the following courses:	
Arts	5
Music	5
Micro-economics	5
Commerce	5
Industrial Studies	5
Agricultural Studies	5
Computer	5
The total no. of classes	31

The Second Stage (The third Year of the General Secondary Education) contd.

Courses	No. of classes
Third: The High Level Courses (Optional)	
Arabic	1
Language	1
First Foreign	1
Language	1
Mathematics	1
Philosophy and Logic	1

- Increasing the capacity of the schooling system to meet social demand: The education system in the nineteen nineties had a high efficiency in accommodating pupils at all education levels. It demonstrated the increase in the number of pupils in the public schools (Arabic and Language schools) and the private schools (Arabic and Language schools). The education system could meet society's demand which considers education as a pillar for socio-economic development, cultural progress, and national security.
- Concern with Kindergarten stage: A social and instructional emphasis has been put on the kindergarten (KG) stage in Egypt, resulting in the increase of enrolment at this stage. The growth in the number of children enrolled at the KG phase has been coupled with an increase in the number of KGs throughout the period indicated above.
- Another secondary indicator is directly related to the role of Kindergartens in preparing the pupils for admission to the primary school. Within the year 1998/99, the number of children at the KG2 (the second year of the KG) was 158,577 as opposed to 1,319,180 children enrolled in the first year of primary education, thus marking a 12.02 per cent, a rather small percentage, which indicates that an increase in the number of KGs in the near future is imperative (MOE 1999:7).
- Increased rate of enrolment at the Primary Stage: The 1990s witnessed an increased enrolment at the primary stage (Table 8). The percentage of those admitted in relation to the age group was 75.12 per cent in 1992/93, increasing further to 81.17 per cent in 1996/97 (MOE 1997: 27). This indicator reflects the improvement in the efficiency and capacity of the educational system at its primary stage to accommodate large numbers.

The indicator for the increase in the capacity of the system to accommodate children as demonstrated by the example of primary

Table 8: Change Rate of Children Admitted at Primary Level (Schools & Classes) Distributed according to gender for the years 1993/94 –1999/2000

	1993/94	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000
General Primary Education							
No. of schools	15,861	16,088	16,188	16,152	15,617	15,566	15,533
No. of classes (1)	160,635	165,406	168,745	171,699	172,741	173,520	173,220
No. of students							
Total	7,049,549	7,313,038	7,470,437	7,541,739	7,499,303	7,351,118	7,224,989
Boys	3,843,122	3,968,253	4,033,465	4,053,602	4,014,780	3,918,891	3835,956
Girls	3,206,472	3,344,785	3,436,972	3,488,137	3,484,523	3,432,227	3,389,033
Average no. of students per class	44	44	44	44	43	42	42

Source: The Central Apparatus for General Mobilization and Census: Yearbook of Census 1993 – 2000, (Cairo 2001) p. 175.

schools is further reinforced by the accompanying decrease in the numbers and percentages of dropouts in that phase. The percentage of dropouts in 1990/91 was 3.85 per cent of the total number of pupils enrolled, while it decreased to 0.98 per cent in 1997/98 (MOE 1997: 27).

• *Growth in the number of students enrolled at the preparatory education*

This is seen in the number of students enrolled at the different types of preparatory schools. The number of students enrolled at preparatory schools increased from 3.35 million to 4.35 million, at a rate of 29.6 per cent, or an annual growth rate of 4 per cent. The growth rate in the number of classes within that period was around 21 per cent, marking an annual growth rate of 3.2 per cent. This led to an increase in the density of the classes from 41 students in 1993/94 to 44 students in 1999/2000 (Table 9).

• *Attention given to children with special needs*

MOE provides complete care to handicapped students. The number of schools, classes and students in special educational institutions for 1996/97 is shown in Table 10.

Equal Educational Opportunities

- Gender: Percentage of girls in relation to the total number of students was 47.62 per cent in the pre-school phase, 46.69 per cent in the primary stage, 46.65 per cent in the preparatory stage and 49.63 per cent in the secondary stage. The percentage of females in proportion to the total number of population was 49 per cent, according to the general population census of 1996.
- Rural and the Urban Areas: The number of primary and preparatory school children (basic education) in rural areas compared to those in the urban areas in terms of the numbers of students enrolled at the general and technical secondary schools, clearly reflects inequality.
- Technical Education: The students in industrial secondary schools represent 44.7 per cent of the total number of technical school students, while the percentages of the students in agricultural and commercial schools is 10.5 per cent and 34.8 per cent respectively (Table 11).

Table 9: Growth in the Number of Preparatory Schools, Classes and Pupils Between 1993/94–1999/2000

Data	1993/94	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000
General Primary Education							
No. of schools	6,202	6,496	6,732	6,905	7,129	7,325	7,544
No. of classes (1)	80,865	82,229	84,618	87,346	91,548	95,453	98,324
No. of students							
Total	3,353,358	3,409,127	3,539,840	3,679,325	3,927,445	4,152,624	4,345,356
Boys	1,850,630	1,864,368	1,921,644	1,981,926	2,107,309	2,215,274	2,309,131
Girls	1,502,728	1,544,759	1,618,196	1,697,399	1,820,136	1,937,350	2,036,225
Average No. of students per class	41	41	42	42	43	43	44

Source: CAPMAS: Yearbook of Statistics 1993-2000 (Cairo, 2001), p. 177.

Table 10: Number of Special Education Schools, Classes and Students (Year 1996/97)

Stage	Departments	Classes	Boys	Girls	Total
Pre-school	6	10	43	29	72
Primary	219	1,777	11,580	6,303	17,883
Preparatory	113	402	2,806	1,282	4,088
Total	338	2,189	14,429	7,614	22,043

Sources: MOE: General Dept. of Information and Computers, Pre-university statistics

Table 11: Distribution of Schools and Students in Urban and Rural Areas at the Pre-university Levels

Stage	Urban		Rural	
	No	%	No	%
Primary Schools	5,052	32.3	10,565	67.7
	3,074,784	41.0	4,424,519	59,9
Preparatory Schools	2,862	4,01	4,267	59.9
	1,883,431	47.9	2,044,014	52.1
General Secondary Schools	1,016	67.1	499	32.9
	723,769	79.7	184,724	20.3
Industrial Secondary Schools	597	85.4	102	14.6
	732,986	90.0	81,781	10.0
Agricultural Secondary Schools	115	78.2	32	21.8
	150,565	83.0	30,864	17.0
Commercial Secondary Schools	607	68.7	276	31.3
	582,085	73.0	214,865	27.0

Source: MOE, General Dept. of Information and Computers, 1998, p. 69-71

The number of females in industrial secondary schools was 34.65 per cent, 20.87 per cent in the agricultural and 61.82 per cent of the total student body attending commercial secondary schools.

Private technical schools are rare, and practically nonexistent in the agricultural sector. The ratio of private industrial schools was only 1.1 per cent, which indicates a negative trend, in spite of the sector's potential importance in the light of the privatisation policies adopted lately.

Teachers' Qualifications

Teachers drive the educational process, that is why it is important to provide them with adequate training.

Table 12: Number of Schools and Students, Public & Rural and Urban Areas Enrolled in Technical 1998/99

Environment	Type of Education		
	Industrial secondary	**Agricultural**	**Commercial**
Urban			
Public			
School	601	120	431
Pupils			
* boys	490,306	119,410	181,613
* girls	252,343	33,643	336,266
Private			
School	8	0	175
Pupils			
* boys	979	0	30340
* girls	2,252	0	45,156
Rural			
Public			
School	109	34	259
Pupils			
* boys	55,901	27,088	97,129
* girls	33,544	5,000	12,650
Private			
School	0	0	30
Pupils			
* boys	0	0	7,790
* girls	0	0	5,068

Distribution According to Qualifications

It was noted that 75.1 per cent of the total number of teachers of pre-university education had teaching qualifications; 61.2 per cent had university degrees. Of the total number of teachers at all levels of education females represented about 46.8 per cent, compared to 53.2 per cent male teachers (Table 13).

The Density of the Classroom

Density of pre-school stage conforms to the laws and ministerial decrees, which set the classroom density at 36 pupils per class. However, the preparatory stage density of the classroom is far beyond average, even though it represents the second link of basic education (Table 14).

Table 13: Distribution of Teachers According to Qualifications & Gender Over the Various Pre-University Educational Stages

Educational Phase	Higher Academic Degrees				Middle & above-Middle degree				Other degrees		Total No. of Teachers		
	Educational		Non-Educational		Educational		Non-Educational						
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Total
Pre-university	103	9,902	39	4,810	11	1,193	12	1,136	0	121	165	17,162	17,327
Primary Stage	32,714	35,622	9,732	17,039	94,011	109,136	14,451	7,730	138	255	151,046	169,782	320,828
Preparatory Stage	72,793	66,711	29,454	18,394	8,384	3,583	7,190	2,267	30	32	117,851	90,987	208,838
Secondary Stage	36,580	19,132	16,735	10,013	1,107	327	821	176	53	-	55,296	29,667	84,963
Industrial Secondary	19,537	11,895	5,675	3,788	24,761	12,001	7,479	3,167	-	-	57,453	30,851	88,304
Agricultural Secondary	3,218	1,779	5,321	2,082	413	35	790	24	-	-	9,742	3,920	13,662
Commercial Secondary	9,586	13,116	14,815	9,678	577	854	596	1052	2	427	255,576	24,700	50,276
Total	174,531	174,531	81,772	65,804	129,264	127,129	31,339	15,552	223		417,129	367,069	784,198

Source: Ministry of education: Statistics of Pre-university education 2000/2001 (Cairo, The General Department of Information & Computers, 2001), pp. 121-139.

Table 14: Density of Classrooms at the Different Levels of Pre-university Education School Year 1998/99

Stage	Classes	Students	Density
Pre-school	10,376	328,140	32
Primary	173,520	7,351,118	42
Preparatory	95,453	4,152,624	44
General Secondary	24,514	968,708	40
Industrial Secondary	24,066	837,325	35
Agricultural Secondary	5,118	185,141	36
Commercial Secondary	22,080	829,866	38

Source: Ministry of Education/ General Department of Information and Computers

Ratio of students/teacher

Table 15 shows the efficiency of the educational process, noting that a low student/teacher ratio indicates a higher quality education and vice versa. However, comparing this to a developed nation like the USA, where the student/teacher ratio stands as low as 16:1, the rates in Egypt are quite high, due to the scarcity of teachers and the disproportionate distribution of their fields of specialization.

Table 15: Ratio of Teacher to Students at all Levels of the Pre-university Education

Stage	Total No. of Teacher	Total No. of Students	Teacher / Student	Student/ Teachers
Pre-school	14,894	328,140	0.05	22
Primary	314,528	7,351,118	0.04	23
One-Class System (Mixed)	94	7,730	0.03	29
One-class system (girls)	3,700	44,820	0.08	12
Preparatory	193,469	4,152,624	0.05	21
General Secondary	79,218	968,708	0.08	12
Industrial Sec.	83,900	837,325	0.10	10
Agricultural	13,575	185,141	0.07	14
Commercial	47,575	829,866	0.06	17
Private Education	6,062	27,907	0.22	5
Total	757,016	14,728,379	0.05	19

Source: MoE, 'General Administration of Information & Computing, Educational Indicators', p. 16.

Upgrading Teachers' Skills

In 1997/98, the ministry planned to send teachers abroad to upgrade their skills and provide them with updated training on modern teaching methods.

Table 16: Teachers Delegations Sent Abroad in Different Specializations

School Year	State	Science	Math	English	French	KG	Special Education	Supervisors	Dean	Total
1993/94	UK	126	94	119	-	-	-	-	-	329
	USA	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	France	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	126	94	119	-	-	-	-	-	329
1994/95	UK	137	136	86	-	-	-	-	-	359
	USA	86	68	63	-	-	-	-	-	217
	France	-	-	-	20	-	-	-	-	20
	Total	223	204	149	20	-	-	-	-	596
1995/96	UK	316	227	72	-	-	-	-	-	615
	USA	-	-	149	-	-	-	-	-	149
	France	25	14	-	20	-	-	-	-	59
	Total	341	241	221	20	-	-	-	-	823
1996/97	UK	336	249	136	-	-	-	-	-	721
	USA	35	36	228	-	-	-	-	-	299
	France	8	8	-	40	-	-	-	-	56
	Total	379	293	364	40	-	-	-	-	107
1997/98	UK	338	249	204	-	-	-	-	-	791
	USA	65	64	99	-	-	-	-	-	228
	France	-	-	-	80	-	-	-	-	80
	Total	403	313	303	80	-	-	-	-	1,099
1998/99	UK	339	249	180	-	-	-	15	105	888
	USA	84	85	119	-	-	-	-	-	288
	France	-	-	-	-	-	20	-	-	80
	Total	-	-	-	99	-	-	-	-	99
		423	334	229	99	60	-	15	105	1,355
Total sum of the delegates till the end of 1998/99		1,895	1,479	1,455	259	60	20	15	1,055	5,288

Source: Ministry of Education, General Department of Information and Computers, op. cit.

Growth of Funds Allocated to the Educational Sector in the Public Budget

The educational sector has witnessed an unprecedented increase of funds. The new education policies have targeted a sizeable increase in the funds allocated by the general budget to that sector. Government's education expenditure increased throughout the past decade, in both nominal and realistic terms yet it was during an era of severe depression, which witnessed a one fifth decrease in the state share of the gross domestic product.

The general expenditure on education was 12.7 billion pounds in 1996/97 compared to 4.6 billion in 1990/91. In realistic terms, however, the increase was 52.6 per cent throughout the indicated period. The rate of spending on the educational sector increased in relation to the total government spending from 10.2 per cent in 1990/91 to around 18 per cent in 1998/99, rather high compared to the average rate in OECD nations which was 7 per cent.

Spending on education in relation to the gross domestic product increased from 4.8 per cent in 1990/91 to 5.5 per cent in 1998/99, marking an average of 5 per cent during that period, which was equivalent to the average registered in the OECD nations, and much higher than the rates registered in the developing nations (The Institute of National Planning: Egypt Human Development Report 1998/99, p. 76). Table 17 shows the development in the educational budget for the pre-university stages during 1990/91 to 1996/97.

In analysing the development of funds allocated to education, it is noted that those funds increased substantially, which had several positive effects, such as:

- Promoting the Nutrition Program provided for the students enrolled at the whole-day system, and increasing the number of nutrition days.
- Giving full attention to school buildings (renovation, maintenance and construction).
- Increasing the average of student share of the budget at all stages, which is increased at the rate of 134 per cent at the pre-university stage.

Table 17: Developments in Pre-University Education Budget from 1990/91–1996/97

Statement	First Item	Second Item	Third Item	Fourth Item	Fifth Item
1990/91	1,821,859,000	2,794,377,000	172,110,000	21,809,810	296,012,810
1991/92	2,112,010,000	292,850,000	211,930,000	1,287,000	729,619,000
1992/93	2,528,060,000	503,258,000	569,930,000	12,876,600	614,102,424
1993/94	3,146,971,000	752,994,000	610,781,000	1,852,159	512,600,159
1994/95	3,831,676,000	964,524,000	812,938,000	1,848,960	610,986,960
1995/96	4,792,428,000	1,077,650,000	152,494,000	750,540,460	773,112,460
1996/97	5,673,087,000	1,163,151,000	952,883,000	3,322,460	792,453,460

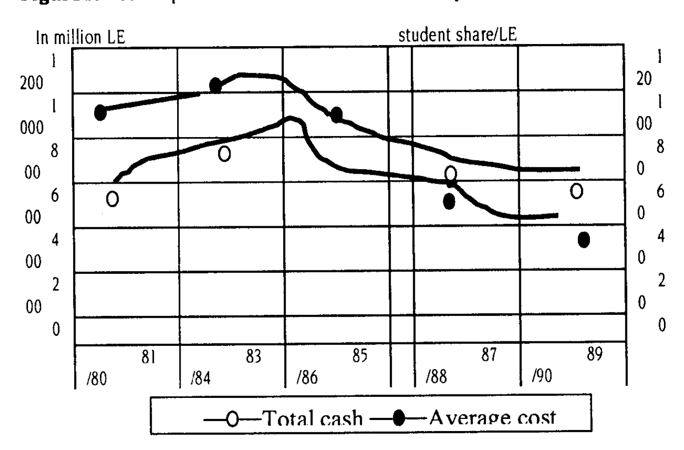
Source: Ministry of Education: General Administration of Information and Computing, Educational Indicators, 1999.

The funds allocated for education have also increased in recent years, reaching around 16.2 billion pounds in 1999/2000 from 3.6 billion in 1990/91. The rates of 1999/2000 indicated above are the highest ever allocated for the educational process, 5.6 per cent of the gross domestic product and around 13.8 per cent of the total government expenditure. These rates are reasonable compared to budgets allocated to the sector of education in other nations of comparable development levels. However, certain elements of misallocation cast their shadow on the process, noting that wages and salaries consume the lion's share of funds allocated, while teachers' salaries take 79.15 per cent of the total budget allocated to the educational sector.

Increased Investments in School-Buildings

This indicator implies state concern with the educational process, noting that school premises require buildings and equipment. Diagram 1 shows that there was an increase in the educational funds allocated for the construction and maintenance of school buildings. Those allocations increased throughout the second, third and fourth five-year plans from 819 million pounds, to 3 billion and 6.3 billion respectively. Those funds fell short of accomplishing the desired goals of increasing the capacity of the schools. A noticeable increase occurred by the end of the 1992-97 five-year plan, where the ratio of the funds allocated to the renovation and maintenance of school buildings reached 15.4 per cent of the total educational funds, marking an unprecedented growth, which was reflected in the construction of 7,500 schools.

Figure 1: Real Expenditures on the Pre-university Educational Sector



Source: Egypt: Human Development Report 1998/99 p.77

The state's commitment to the individual's right to education

Law no. 139, article 3, ensures free pre-university education as a right for every citizen. Fees are collected in return for additional services provided to the students, or in the form of insurance paid to cover the school equipment. Ministerial decree No. 457 (MOE, 1998), in charge of organizing the tuition payment for 1998/99 referred to those fees, setting a range of 15.2 LE for the first primary year, and 22.24 LE for the preparatory stage of the basic education. Other fees are added per law, namely 4.1 LE for the primary stage and 6.2 LE for the secondary. Some might consider those fees as insignificant, however, it should be noted that the same decree provided for optional subscriptions amounting to LE 29 for the primary stage and LE 21 for the preparatory in return for the student's evaluation sheets, which are then accorded to some students.

Family expenditure at the beginning of the school year includes uniforms and copybooks. Private tuition has become common, even though it is sometimes carried out under the ministry's supervision, under the name of Help-groups. External books and references are used throughout the different educational stages, representing an additional burden on the student and his family (Abdul Samii et al, 1999). Egyptian family expenditure on education has been estimated to be around 20-25 per cent of its income, there are school fees, which are imposed openly or in

different subtle ways, reaching according to ministerial decree No. 1 87 for the year 1992 to around 25,209,463 LE.

The ratio of paid education to the subsidised total

This ratio expresses the overlapping financial aspects of education (Table 18). Thus only the relatively prosperous can afford to send their children to private schools, noting the absence of an upper limit to the school tuition, some nurseries even go as far as charging in hard currency (Abbas et al, 1999: 89).

Table 18: Ratio of Private Schools to the Total Number of Schools (1999/98)

	Ratio		
	Schools	Classes	Pupils
Pre-school	36.66	52.80	53.65
Primary	7.84	8.60	7.47
Preparatory	10.81	5.34	4.04
General Secondary	21.64	10.02	8.26
Industrial Secondary	1.11	0.40	0.39
Agricultural Secondary	0.00	0.00	0.00
Commercial Secondary	22.91	10.16	10.65
All stages	12.68	8.53	7.26

The increase in the student's share of the educational funds

A review of the developments of the educational budgets recorded during the nineties reveals a substantial increase, which had its noticeable effects on numerous levels:

- The improvement of nutrition services provided to the students of the full day system.
- The provision of materials necessary for technical and general education.
- The reinforcement of sports activities in schools.
- The attention given to the maintenance, renovation and construction of school buildings.
- The allocation of financial resources to upgrade the living standards of the teachers.
- The provision of incentives for educational activities and scientific superiority.

All of the above has resulted in an increase in the student's contribution to the educational budget at all stages, the increase at the pre-university level was 281 per cent for 1998/99 compared to 1990/91.

Performance Indicators in the Educational System

These are indicators showing the efficiency and performance of the educational process, the extent of goal achievement at all stages of education, and the degree to which society and the state consider education as a paramount social value. A detailed account of the most important indicators of the quality of the pre-university education offered follows.

Illiteracy/The Degree of Literacy

The last decade of the twentieth century was declared the Decade for eradicating illiteracy and educating adults. The Illiteracy Eradication Authority was instituted and a 1993 to 2001 plan put in place. As a result illiteracy rates decreased.

Table 19: Changes in Illiteracy Rates Throughout 1996–1999

Year	Illiteracy rates (males) %	Illiteracy rates %	Females %
1986	37.8	61.8	49.4
1990	35.5	55.2	47.1
1996	29.0	50.2	39.4
1999	24.0	45.0	34.2

Source: CAPMAS, Cairo, 1999

The illiteracy rate is higher for girls, which contradicts recent international trends which pay special attention to the problems facing girls education. The introduction of one-class schools for girls could provide a solution to the problem. We note a slow but constant decrease in the rates of illiteracy, at a pace, which does not exactly conform to the needs of development and the rhythm of the era (Table 19).

Failure rates as an indicator of the waste involved in the educational process

Failure rates could be deduced from the overview of the examination results at the different educational stages during 1997/1998 as shown in Table 20.

Table 20: Failure Rates at All Education Levels, 1997/98

Stage	Boys	Girls	Total
Primary Stage	80.29	86.84	83.29
Preparatory Stage	78.78	85.18	81.73
General Secondary	88.32	93.36	90.74
Industrial Secondary	98.15	99.36	98.42
Agricultural Secondary (3 years)	95.41	99.19	96.20
Commercial Secondary (3 years)	94.84	98.74	97.27

Source: Ministry of Education, General Administration of Information & Computing, Pre-university Statistics, pp. 94-110

Girls performed better than boys at all stages of education, which asserts the notion that girls are more determined to benefit from the educational opportunities offered to them. Even though the percentages of dropouts are higher and the rates of enrolment lower among girls, the reasons behind the dropout phenomenon and the staggering rates of enrolment are societal rather than educational.

High success rates and low percentages of failure at the secondary level are shown, which could be attributed to societal reasons, since secondary education is a transitional phase leading either to the labour market, which is plagued by the enormous problem of unemployment or to university education, which suffers from inflated numbers of students. This shows the imbalance and lack of coordination characterising the educational system.

Dropouts as a sign of waste in the educational process

Failure is but a prologue to dropping out, noting that the two phenomena are closely related as reiterated by a score of studies. Tables 21 and 22 indicates the decrease in the numbers of dropouts from the primary and preparatory stages.

The quality and efficiency rates of the Egyptian educational system

What is meant by internal efficiency or the quality aspect is the degree to which the quality of the graduates conforms to the objective specifications and goals of the education system, while the quantity dimension is more concerned with the relation between the inputs and the outputs. At any rate, the existence of an element of educational waste affects the efficiency rates both in quality and quantity. If the exams are an indicator

of the performance capability of the students, as well as their growth and progress attained in each of their courses, and their scientific, behavioural and creative potentials, those same exams refer, on the other hand, to the extent of waste suffered within the education system. The repeated failure of scores of students leads to their dropping out of education all together, which signifies a human, financial and education waste, which should be reduced, due to its damaging effects on the efficiency of the system and its overall performance.

Table 23 shows exams results at a number of educational levels during 1960/61, 1994/95, 1996/97 and demonstrates the gradual changes in the enrolment and registration rates of students during those years.

Table 21: Number and Percentage of Dropouts (Males & Females) at the Primary Stage

School-year	Boys			Girls			Total		
	Registered	Drop-outs	%	Registered	Drop-outs	%	Registered	Drop-outs	%
1990/91	3,532,216	03,518	2.9	1,264,607	82,205	6.5	4,796,923	184,733	7.8
1991/92	3,599,454	93,717	2.6	2,942,755	67,916	2.3	6,542,209	161,623	2.47
1992/93	3,721,617	73,552	2.0	3,069,511	136,616	4.46	6,791,128	210,169	3.19
1993/94	3,843,122	62,143	1.6	3,206,437	39,465	1.2	7,049,549	101,608	1.44
1994/95	3,968,353	59,528	1.5	3,344,785	33,291	1.0	7,313,038	928,190	1.27
1995/9	4,033,465	51,381	1.3	3,436,972	26,954	0.78	7,470,437	78,335	1.5
1996/97	4,053,602	38,173	0.94	3,488,137	18,794	0.54	7,541,739	56,967	0.79
1997/98	40,414,780	48,716	1.21	3,484,523	24,457	0.71	7,499,303	731,730	

Table 22: Number and Rate of Drop-outs (Preparatory Stage)

School-year	Boys			Girls			Total		
	Registered	Drop-outs	%	Registered	Drop-outs	%	Registered	Drop-outs	%
1990/91	1,532,052	176,794	11.54	1,241,437	123,045	9.9	2,773,489	299,839	1.81
1991/92	1,222,886	70,034	5.73	996,097	82,122	8.24	2,218,983	152,156	1.86
1992/93	1,216,689	64,081	5.3	996,252	49,801	5.0	2,212,943	112,882	
1993/94	1,282,462	53,787	4.19	1,037,632	34,378	3.2	2,320,094	88,165	2.8
1994/95	1,287,447	73,051	5.67	1,075,314	48,388	4.5	2,362,761	121,439	5.14
1995/96	1,326,359	63,783	4.7	1,125,567	36,738	3.26	2,451,926	99,521	4.06
1996/97	1,366,672	50,842	3.72	1,178,497	34,196	2.9	2,545,169	85,038	3.24
1997/98	1,437,985	53,700	3.72	1,248,967	33,105	2.65	2,686,952	86,805	3.22

Table 23 depicts very low quality rates due to the reduced rates of success at the different stages. The higher the level of education, the greater the educational waste induced by the increased rates of failure, which in the end effect enormous financial burdens on the system. It also indicates that the success rates among females are rather low at most of the transitional years, while those rates were rather low among males. Table 24, on the other hand, indicates the increased failure rates, depending on the school year and the gender.

Services Provided to the Students

- Health Services. All students are covered by a health insurance system, enabling each of them to benefit from a comprehensive treatment system through the clinics stationed within schools and the hospitals distributed all over the country. School curricula include sections on basic health concepts such as personal health awareness and care, examples of infectious diseases, as well as methods of infection.
- Nutritional Services. 8,766,475 students benefited from nutritional services in 1998/99. It cost the government 222 million pounds, four million from foreign grants. The Ministry of Education is adopting a major project whose aim is to boost the nutrition of students, providing them with information on proper diet. The project is carried out jointly with a number of institutions and is supported by the World Bank
- Sports Services. Hosts of activities, championships and athletic training camps are organized for students. There were 200 sports centres inaugurated at the various schools in cooperation with the Ministry of Youth and Sports. A five-year plan was incorporated into the general state plan, at a cost of 20 million Egyptian pounds to upgrade sports activities in all schools. The tearing down of any playground in the schools is prohibited.
- Cultural Services. Egypt is a pioneer in its Festival of Reading for all, which was established in 1990. More than 10,000 schools take part in this festival. One library is selected in every building block or village to open its doors to the public throughout the duration of this festival.
- Applying Technology in Schools. The number of improved schools reached 17,000 out of a total of 24,000 schools in 1998-99. These schools are equipped with multi-media, advanced science laboratories as well as reception areas to broadcast educational channels.

  Computer courses were introduced from grade one at all educational levels starting from 2000-2001. However, there are still several

Table 23: Rates of Enrolment and Registration During the Years 1960/61, 1996/97, 1994/95

Statement	School-year	Total inrelation to relevant age group	% of females in relation to relevant age group
Rates of enrolment at the first primary Year	1960/61	68.9	57.4
	1996/97	101.8	96.8
	1994/95	98.6	94.8
Total Registration rates at the primary stage (%)	1960/61	61.3	49.0
	1996/97	102.9	95.8
	1994/95	105.0	99.0
Failure rates at the primary stage (% of the total no. of registered)	1960/61	7.2	00
	1996/97	6.7	00
	1994/95		
Transition to the preparatory stage (% to the total no. of those who have completed their primary education)	1960/61	99.1	00
	1996/97	95.4	00
	1994/95		
Total registration rates at the preparatory stage (%)	1960/61	17.2	10.1
	1996/97	84.7	78.6
	1994/95	83.3	78.6
Failure rates at the preparatory stage (% to the total no. of registered students)	1960/61	12.3	00
	1996/97	9.9	00
	1994/95		
Transition to the secondary stage (% to the total no. of those who have completed their preparatory education)	1960/61	96.1	00
	1996/97	95.1	00
	1994/95		
Registration rates at the secondary stage (%)	1960/61	17.1	8.4
	1996/97	58.8	54.7
	1994/95	46.9	44.1
Failure rates at the secondary stage total no. of registered students) (% to the total no. of those who have completed their secondary education	1960/61	3.6	00
	1996/97	3.7	00
	1994/95		
Total registration rates at the higher education (%)	1960/61	9.5	3.3
	1996/97	17.7	14.5
	1994/95	26.2	23.4

Source: INP, 1996, p. 131, p. 121.

obstacles in spreading modern educational technology especially the lack of funds and trained teachers who are able to use this technology.

Table 24: Failure Rates According to School Year and Gender 1992/93–1995/96

	Girls				Boys			
	1992/93	1993/94	1994/95	1995/96	1992/93	1993/94	1994/95	1995/96
Primary								
Grade 1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
Grade 2	6.0	4.3	4.7	4.4	8.1	6.0	6.8	6.3
Grade 3	4.9	3.9	6.0	4.4	6.9	5.4	9.1	6.8
Grade 4	9.7	6.7	7.9	6.1	12.4	8.9	10.9	8.5
Grade 5	12.0	7.1	9.6	9.6	14.9	9.5	13.1	13.3
Total	6.3	4.3	5.6	4.9	8.4	5.9	8.0	7.1
Preparatory								
Grade 6	13.7	10.6	14.0	11.8	15.0	11.9	16.3	13.8
Grade 7	9.4	6.4	7.5	6.9	.11.0	7.7	9.1	8.5
Grade 8	19.1	12.0	10.1	9.8	23.9	16.2	13.9	13.7
Total	14.2	9.7	10.8	9.6	16.8	12	13.3	12.1
Secondary								
Grade 9	0.6	1.3	1.4	2	1.5	2.9	3.1	4.3
Grade 10	1.4	0.5	1.1	0	4	1.1	2.7	0
Grade 11	19.4	18.6	8.1	19.6	22.8	21.6	11.2	25.4
Total	6.4	5.5	4.1	7.4	8.7	7.4	6.4	10.8

Source : World Bank Staff estimates from Ministry of Education data in SAR/ EEP, 1996

Note: al-Azhar students are not included .

The Actual Educational Policy

The educational system's intellectual guidelines are based on the country's legislations and charters, constitution as well as the work of intellectuals, artists and men of letters. We outline the directions and targets of the educational system in Egypt so as to review its policies in the 1990s.

Sources of Educational Policies Targets

There are a number of documents, which analyse the targets, and directions of the educational system in Egypt. Before delving into those sources and their relationship with the targets of the educational policies, let us define educational policy.

The term 'educational policy' reflects the policy, which the society is pursuing in terms of the educational system. It is a formula that brings together both the principles and educational directives, which in turn are derived from the social legislative and intellectual sources in a specific stage of the society's development. The educational policy is therefore a

part of the general policy of the society (Abdullah 1997). The educational policy formulates the set of values, targets and goals, which the society takes from the educational system. It selects, implements and assesses the educational process in all its phases and forms. It is also considered a yardstick with which to measure and judge the extent of the response of education to the predominant social philosophy. The educational policy, according to this perception, is a middle ring in a chain which begins with the social philosophy and ends with plans and different educational projects (Abdullah 1997).

The process of making the educational policy is shaped and influenced by the developments in the field of thought and educational practice. Improving the educational policy and re-examining its structure is necessary. An emphasis should be made on the equal opportunity concept (Ammar 1998: 29), which is a basic foundation for the social education policy in the contemporary context. It is a tool to further the democratic performance on all operating levels.

Educationalists, thinkers, politicians and those working in civil activities have formulated these documents. Organizations and institutions with a vision have also formulated them. Other bodies such as the specialised committees and the legislative councils, the Shura council, educational research centres as well as some counselling offices have also been involved.

The most important sources from which the educational policy derived its guidelines in the past few decades are detailed below.

The ideological source

Egypt is a society with a deeply rooted history. One of our great thinkers (Hamdan 1981) referred to it as a mixture of pharaonic, African, Islamic and Arab histories. All these sources represent the different identities of contemporary Egypt. It also directs its interactions and internal and external policies. It is only natural that aspects of religion and creed (both Islamic and Christian) as well as aspects of the pharaonic and Arab histories are reflected in the education process.

The constitution

The constitution reflects the aspiration and ambitions of the nation to achieve its aims in shaping the standard of life it aspires for. Therefore, whether written or oral, it is authored by the state to outline the principles as well as the relationship between the society and others. The constitu-

tion, which guides the current education policy, was issued in 1971 with articles 7 to 39 underlining the basic principles of the society.

Article 7 states that 'society is based on social solidarity,' while article number 8 states that 'the state guarantees the equal opportunity for all citizens'. Articles 18 to 21 deal with the principles and the tenets of the Egyptian education policy: education is compulsory in the primary stage and this should be extended to other stages. It is a right guaranteed by the state, which supervises free education in all its stages. It is also a duty of society to secure it for its own people.

Legislations

The constitution is complemented by legislations and laws which regulate the education process. On top of these legislations is education law number 139 /1981 which was modified by law number 233/1988.

Needs and aspirations of the Egyptian society

No doubt that all the information related to the societal development, the population growth, the current and future needs and aspirations which direct the domestic and foreign policy of the Egyptian society are all among the fundamentals of the educational policy.

The most recent international documents concerning education

There should be special emphasis on documents, which were issued during the 1990s and influenced the formation and direction of the education policy in Egypt. These documents include:

1. The Universal Declaration on Education for All issued by the international conference on education for all (March 1999). It emphasised the need to enable everybody to benefit from educational opportunities which cater for the individual's basic needs for learning.
2. The International Conference of Child Summit held in New York (1999). This conference outlined the comprehensive aims for the decade 1990-2000 to provide primary education to all children in an effort to reduce illiteracy by half as well as achieve equality in education among boys and girls.
3. The Report of the International Committee on Education in the 21st century titled 'learning this important treasure' (1997) which placed special emphasis on the responsibility of the learning process to invest in human talents, revive the collective spirit and reinforce the individual abilities. It also placed emphasis on social cohesion and its role in achieving universal co-existence and harmony (International Conference for Child decade, 1990, Delaware and others, 1997).

Aims and Trends of the Egyptian Education System and Policies

Despite the economic, political and military circumstances which Egypt was subject to during the second half of the 20th century, the state's conviction in the value of education and its profound role in building both individual and society has led to many features which are characteristic of the current policies in different educational fields. Some of these achievements include:

Education Improvement and Innovation Programmes

This was reflected in the introduction and implementation of many of the international learning experiments in a bid to develop education in a way that makes it able to deliver its aims successfully. While some of those experiments have achieved success, others, however, failed for various reasons. This in a sense has had its toll on the education process.

The Ideal Schools Model

It was launched in 1956, according to law number 492/1954 (Harbi 1961: 33) in an attempt to try out the modern methods and means of learning. Those schools were meant to be centres for coaching and training teachers as well as students of faculty of education. The state imposed fees on those students willing to enrol in this type of school since it provides for a remarkable educational service.

The Model of the Ideal Secondary Schools

This model was launched in accordance with law number 55/ 1957 (the National Center for Social and Criminal Research, 1985, 230). It referred to the need for the introduction of scientific subjects within the secondary education subjects. This move aimed to enable students to show respect for manual work and to acquire practical experiences, which could help in shaping their future. The study, according to this model, included scientific, commercial as well as food industries.

The Comprehensive Secondary School Model

This model was applied on a couple of secondary schools as it aimed to integrate both the academic secondary education with the technical one in one school. It granted the student the right to choose their educational career in accordance with his or her capabilities and wishes. Accordingly, the student would be directed to the kind of college education which goes hand in hand with the kind of education he/she received in secondary

school. This model did not last due to the many technical, financial and administrative obstacles it faced.

The Primary Education Project

This was implemented in all primary and preparatory schools according to law number 139 / 1981. This meant extending the compulsory education period to nine years including both the primary and preparatory education. It also aimed to improve the capabilities of the students and provide them with the necessary values, modes of behaviour, knowledge and scientific and professional skills, which are in harmony with the different environments. Thus, those who complete primary school are able to continue their education in a higher stage or enrol in the labour market after intensive technical training. In this sense, the individual is prepared to be a productive citizen in his community and society as a whole (Helmi 1999: 23).

The period of compulsory education was modified to eight rather than nine years starting from 1988/89 with five years instead of six for primary education. This unplanned and hasty modification led to a major shake-up of the educational system and its outputs, which had adverse effects on the educational process as a whole. This move, however, was reversed in 1999 when law number 23 was issued and consequently wrote off the modification. The duration of primary education reverted to nine years. This law was applied on all the children who enrolled in grade one in 2000-2001 (MOE 1999).

The One-class Schools Model

This model was introduced in 1993 to assist the illiterate, particularly girls who are past the age of primary education. The model aims to develop the linguistic skills of the students and assist them in understanding their surrounding environment. These schools were set up in rural areas and were mainly a one-class school with multi-levels of education. Some of the schools were allowed to enrol students in the preparatory school. The project began with 211 schools with 3,165 girls in 1993/94 and rose to 2,328 schools providing educational services for 47,550 girls and boys in the year 1998/1999 (MOE 1999).

Community School Model

It was launched in 1992 to educate the locals in villages and distant rural areas in cooperation with UNICEF and the Canadian government. It aimed to achieve equal opportunity in education. These schools were set up in three governorates, Assuit, Qena and Sohag. The project began by building four schools in 1993, which rose to 15 schools in 1994 and 125

schools in 1995. By 1999/2000 the project had 207 schools serving 4,500 girls and boys. These schools are similar to the one-class schools (Al-Sharafa 1998: 9-11).

Mubarak-Kohl Project for the Development of Technical Secondary Education

This project was implemented in 1995 in agreement with the government of Germany. Its basic target was to prepare a generation of technical workforce which is highly trained on the use of the means of production and modern technology and which meets the needs of the labour market. This project combined theoretical study (two days a week) with practical training in factories (four days a week). The study lasted for three years. The project was implemented in two schools with 320 students in 1995. The number of the schools increased to eight schools with 1,350 students in 1996, then 12 schools with 2,300 students in 1997 and finally 19 schools with 3,154 students in 1998 (MOE 52-54).

Improving Educational Services

The Egyptian government strongly believes in the need to develop the education process to have it compatible with universal educational experiments and the scientific and technological advancement in different fields. The last decade witnessed an increase in the government's interest in developing educational services whether on the level of school, class or on a more general level. This interest was translated into a number of steps:

- Enhancing the Educational Services in Schools: This included placing special emphasis on sports, cultural, artistic and social activities as well as educational means of communication and school papers. Schools were also provided with modern equipment such as T.V. and VCR sets, projectors and screens. School libraries were also upgraded. New books, references and other tools, which help enhance its educational role, were introduced. Librarians were appointed, class time was allocated for libraries and an increasing number of libraries have participated in the Reading for All festival sponsored by Mrs. Suzan Mubarak since 1991. This festival is the basis for students' activities during summer time. The number of schools affiliated to this model increased from 521 in 1991 to 8,070 schools four years later and 9,553 schools in 1998 (MOE, 40).
- Expanding the Use of Computers: This is out of a conviction on the part of the ministry of education officials of the importance of the use of computer in different activities. Computer classes were made compulsory in secondary school. Accordingly, 1,864 schools were

provided with 4,241 computer-labs and 23,615 computer sets until 1999. Also 780 preparatory schools were provided with 8,580 computers. Additionally, an increasing number of primary schools and kindergartens were also provided with computer sets and almost 5,000 teachers trained and coached to use computers between 1991 and 1999 (Ministry of Education 1999: 8-11).

- Introducing central educational services, which serve the students and those working in schools nationwide: This came through with the establishment of technological and scientific centres such as the NCERD, which was established in the 1960s to conduct research and studies. The National Center for Exams and Educational Assessment which was set up in 1990 in an attempt to enhance the different educational curriculum, the technological Development Center, the videoconference network which was set up in 1998 in order to implement the central coaching programme for those working in schools, educational administrations as well as Suzan Mubarak's Exploration Center in a way to simplify science and nurture the talented ones. However, its impact is still limited.

The Progressively Increasing Number of Schools and Students in Different Levels

The government was interested in constructing schools in different geographical areas. This is due to a number of reasons: the increasing

Table 25: Development of Number of Students/Schools from 1953-98

School year	Secondary		Prep		Primary	
	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools
1953/54	111,000	-	352,000	-	1,393,000	-
1959/60	250,000	-	310,000	-	2,690,000	-
1966/67	354,429	-	665,521	-	3,471,610	-
1974/75	684,950	1,149	119,980	2,663	4,074,893	10,140
1976/77	512,182	1,306	1,435,529	3,119	4,151,956	10,569
1979/80	1,366,475	1,511	1,526,462	3,319	4,434,557	11,356
1984/85	1,010,762	1,781	2,000,087	3,385	5,680,528	12,744
1989/90	1,520,082	2,350	3,412,867	5,726	61,551,000	14,767
1993/94	2,191,346	2,491	3,287,384	6,748	7,046,966	15,944
1994/95	2,738,136	2,945	3,409,137	6,496	7,313,038	16,088
1995/96	2,783,767	2,985	3,539,840	6,732	7,470,437	16,158
1996/97	618,957	3,120	3,679,325	6,905	7,541,739	16,152
1997/98	2,717,207	3,244	3,927,445	7,129	7,499,739	15,617

Source: MOE: Educational Reports and Statistics in Different Years, 1997.

population growth, the growing social demand on education particularly among families with a low economic and social standard, implementing the equal opportunity concept in education, the state's sponsorship of financing education and the appointment of new graduates in government

Table 26: Growth of General and Technical Secondary Schools Students from 1953/1954 to 1997/1998

	Grade		Technical		Total
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	students
1953/54	92,062	82.9	18,980	17.1	111,042
1959/60	123,478	67.2	60,347	32.8	183,825
1965/66	215,633	68.0	101,614	32.0	317,247
1969/70	293,144	59.8	197,054	40.2	490,198
1973/74	323,603	53.2	284,795	46.8	608,390
1976/77	392,861	49.3	403,550	50.7	96,412
1980/81	485,867	43.3	635,407	56.7	1,121,274
1095/86	569,366	39.3	877,399	60.7	1,446,765
1989/90	569,939	37.5	950,133	62.5	1,520,072
1991/92	573,026	33.8	1,120,194	66.2	1,693,220
1995/96	817,387	31.4	1,786,380	68.6	2,603,767
1997/98	909,199	33.5	1,808,008	66.5	3,717,207

Source: MOE, educational Reports and statistics in different years.

bodies and public sector companies. The statistics in Table 25 show the increase in the number of students and schools. Almost 7,500 schools were built between 1992 and 1997 as a result of the October 1992 earthquake, 1,500 of which were one-class schools (Gaber Muhammed Tolba 1996: 241). The increase of the students flow in different educational levels as the data presented above shows that there was an increase in the numbers of students.

• *The Increasing Number of Technical Secondary School Students*

Due to the demand of both the local and the Arab markets for skilled technicians and labourers and the state economic policies to achieve the goals of development, the government has shown interest in technical secondary education with its three branches; industrial, agricultural and commercial. This was reflected in the increased number of schools and students. Also the number of those who enrolled in this type of secondary education increased gradually in comparison with the number of those who enrolled in the academic secondary education. Table 26 shows that the number of the students of secondary technical education was 18,980 i.e. 17.1 per cent of the overall number of pupils in secondary school in

1953/54. This number rose to about 46.8 per cent of the overall number of the secondary education students in 1973/74. In 1989/90 it rose by 62.5 per cent. In 1997 it reached 66.5 per cent of the total number of students. This is, in addition to setting up the five-year technical schools.

Training programmes were implemented directly or indirectly through a videoconference network. Accordingly, almost 158,410 teachers, a director and an inspector were trained in 1998 (MOE 1997/98: 32). This was in addition to the teachers training programme abroad which was launched in 1994 and aimed to send some mathematic, science and English and French language teachers abroad to learn about the international trends in education, class management, teaching methods as well as computers (see Table 27).

Table 27: Number of the Teachers Sent Abroad on Training Missions from 1994-99

Year	1999	1998	1997	1996	1995	1994
Number	1,214	1,099	1,076	823	596	339

Source: MOE, Cultural Relations Department: Scholarship Department. The number of teachers sent abroad, 1999.

Increase in the Number of Teachers

The past few years have witnessed a continuous increase in the number of teachers in different educational stages (Table 28).

Table 28: Increase of the Number of Teachers from 1966/67 to 1997/98

Educational stage	1966/67	1976/77	1991/92	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98
Primary	86,095	126,379	273,056	302,916	309,567	310,116
Prep	24,003	34,914	153,555	174,794	183,261	186,572
Secondary	11,934	17,823	135,436	144,213	207,759	212,110

Source: Ministry of education, the education statistics in different years.

The Continuous Increase in Education Finance

Finance is one of the basic pillars upon which the educational system depends in achieving its goals and implementing its plans. Since the 1950s the Egyptian government has taken up the responsibility of supervising education and financing it to achieve the principles of justice, equality and equal opportunity in education. Though the government had ambitions to finance all aspects of education, the finances became

unattainable and this adversely affected the implementation of the official financial policy during the past few years. These obstacles include:

- The remarkable increase in population did not match the modest increase in production and national income. The increase of students resulted in a shortage of school buildings, high student to teacher ratio, an increase in the daily schools periods and school truancy.
- The sweeping and continuous transformation of the economic policy of the state during the second half of the 20th century from socialism to open door policy and then to privatisation and business sector which affected the state budget and its national production and this in effect has been reflected on the budget allocated for education.
- The increase in the budget allocated to the armed forces particularly during the past three decades of the 20th century had an adverse impact on the education budget. Statistics show that the percentage of the military expenditure to the expenditure on both the education and health sectors had reached 117 per cent in 1960 and then it was reduced in 1991/92.
- The state embraced the equal opportunity concept in education including free education for all. The increase in the social demand on education led to a growing responsibility taken up by the state on spending on education. The state is solely responsible for the financing of education.
- The rise in national aspirations particularly in the field of social and educational services.
- Lavish expenditure on educational institutions, money which would have been spent on education without any economic or social outcome.
- Fluctuating financial resources of the state budget as they were closely connected with the military and political circumstances such as the closure of the Suez Canal during the Israeli occupation of Sinai. Also the terrorist attacks had their toll on the national income and the revenues coming from the Egyptian workers were subject to the political relations between Egypt and the respective countries.

Despite all the difficulties and obstacles which stood in the way of financing education, the Egyptian government made every effort to avail financial resources for education to allow it to achieve its targets. The education expenditure rose annually (Table 29).

Table 29: Statement of National Income and GDP in Million Egyptian Pound Percentage of Education Expenditure (1964/65–1989/90)

School year	Total GDP	National Income	Percentage of edu-cationspending to the total GDP	Percentage of the education spending to the national income
1964/1965	21,918	19,750	4.5	5.0
1975/1999	29,266	25,528	4,8	5.5
1974/75	55,300	47,708	4.7	5.5
1971/78	124,746	106,805	4.3	5.1
1985/86	-	-	5.5	-
1989/90	-	-	7.6	-

Source: Samir Lewis: Student Cost in Primary Schools, A Statistical Study, NCERD, 1985 and The Human Development Report: 1986-85/1990-1989

Table 30: Distribution of Expenditure on Pre-university Education During the Period from 1980/81 to 1995/96.

School year	Salaries	Current expenditure	Investment spending	Capitalist transactions	Total
1980/81	78.2	11.8	9.9	10	100
1981/82	77.3	10.2	12.4	.1	100
1982/83	80.6	9.5	9.8	.1	100
1983/84	80,2	9.3	10.3	.2	100
1984/85	81.0	8.4	9.7	.2	100
1985/86	83.6	7.4	8.8	.1	100
1986/87	84.7	6.3	8.9	.2	100
1987/88	84.0	6.2	9.7	.1	100
1988/89	84.8	5.4	9.6	.1	100
1989/90	85.9	5.1	6.9	.1	100
1990/91	81.2	11.0	7.7	.1	100
1991/92	79.1	13.4	7.4	.041	100
1992/93	71.5	12.8	15.6	.031	100
1993/94	69.7	16.7	13.5	1.081	100
1994/95	68.3	17.2	14.5		100
1995/96	70.8	16.0	12.3		100

Source: The Center for the Studies of Developing Countries, Sustainable Development Report in Egypt, 1st issue, Cairo University, Faculty of Economics and Political Science, 1998

A study of the financial and expenditure policy on education shows the following:

- The amount spent on a primary school student is very small compared to what is spent on a university student (Nabawi 1999) – the ratio is 1:17. This is despite the fact that investments in primary education exceed those for higher education about 24 per cent to 13 per cent.
- The cost of the primary school student reached 123 Egyptian pounds in 1990 and the cost of the prep school student reached 138 Egyptian pounds yearly (Helmi 1991: 20-21). This percentage is very small when compared with the cost of their counterparts in advanced countries.
- There is no fair distribution of the education expenditure. For example, 26.3 per cent was allocated to higher education in 1994/95. This rose to 36.6 per cent in 1995/96 (Nabawi 1999). The increase in education spending which was directed to salaries and bonuses reached its lowest at 68.3 per cent in 1994/95 and its highest of 85.9 per cent in 1989/90 out of the total budget of education (Table 30.)

Table 31: Pre-university education budget from 1991/90 to 1997/96

School year	The Budget
1990/91	229,601,281
1991/92	2,729,669
1992/93	3,614,102,434
1993/94	4,512,600,156
1994/95	561,098,696
1995/96	677,311,246
1996/97	779,245,346

Source: Ministry of Education, Mubarak National project: 1996-97

Problems Facing the Implementation of Educational Policies

The Egyptian government provides numerous educational services in terms of laws, legislations, policies, school construction, teacher training and coaching, improving curricula and school books. However, there are still certain political, socio-economic, and administrative forces standing in the way of improving the education process. Some problems, which hinder and prevent the education process from achieving its goals include:

Shortage of kindergartens

Most kindergartens are geographically concentrated in three governorates Cairo, Giza and Alexandria which have 47.8 per cent of the total kindergartens nationwide while the remaining twenty-five governorates take up the remaining percentage. Thirty three per cent of the kindergartens are located in only four areas with high living standards (Heliopolis, Madinet Nasr, Manyal, Southern Cairo) in the Cairo governorate while the other geographical areas (21) share the remaining percentage (Ali Al-Shekhabi 1999). This policy favours the children who belong to rich families. It therefore, adversely influences and hinders the performance of the children who come from a relatively poor background in the primary education stage. This has led to an increase in the rates of failure and truancy among these children. At the same time, this policy hinders the implementation of the policy for equal opportunity in education.

The Limited Capacity for Grade-One Children

According to the state's compulsory education policy when a child reaches the age of six, his parents are entitled to send him to the nearest primary school. The law also stipulates that the Egyptian government will punish those who do not take their children to school. It is also held responsible for securing enough places for all children in the compulsory education.

Table 32: Improvement of capacity in primary education between 1990/91-1995/96

School year	The total number of children	The number of accepted children			The percentage		Capacity percentage
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
1990/9	1,854272	713,092	600,659	1,313,752	45.7	45.7	70.85
1991/92	1,834426	716,341	607,014	1,323,355	45.9	45.9	72.14
1991/92	1,877489	759,423	650,947	1,410,270	46.2	46.2	75.12
1992/93	1,893964	797,149	692264	1,489,413	46.5	46.5	78.64
1993/94	1,817961	775,076	682,383	1,457,459	46.8	46.8	80.17
1995/96	1,732420	753,218	669,272	1,422,490	47.0	47.0	82.11
1996/97	1,664871	711,271	640,105	1,351,376	47.3	47.3	81.17

Source: Nabawi 2001

There are huge numbers of children among the poorer families and inhabitants of remote areas, who don't find places in grade one of the primary school for many reasons, most of whom are girls. Such a policy

could affect the individual production for there is a positive correlation between education and the individual production level. Growing numbers of illiterates could result in several psychological and social ills.

The Growing Number of School Drop-outs

According to the Egyptian compulsory education laws, the student is obliged to stay in school until the end of the compulsory education stage. At the beginning it was four years, then it was extended to six and then to nine, back to eight and back again to nine years. It covers both primary and prep education or what was to be termed as the basic education phase. The Egyptian government has tried to put those laws into effect first by constructing schools in different geographical areas, providing them with teachers, books and equipments. But in reality a huge number drop out before the completion of their primary education. The majority of those dropouts come from low-income families in the rural and remote areas as well as in poverty-stricken areas and many are girls as some studies concluded (Lewis 1980, Khalifa 1995, Al-Sawy 1976, Abdullah and Al-Shekhebi 1988)

Tables 33 and 34 reveal the number and percentage of the drop-outs from both primary and prep schools, though the data of these two tables refer to a gradual fall in the percentage of the drop-outs on an annual basis, however, their numbers are not yet small enough. Thus, it represents one of the sources of wasting education finances; a source of growing rates of illiteracy as well as a hindrance to the equal opportunity in education goal. In the meantime it is a sign of the inefficiency of the education system, which in turn leads to failure in school.

Table 33 shows that there was a remarkable fall in the number of dropouts and their percentage in primary education from 1991/92 to 2000/2001. In 1991/92 it was 2.47 per cent, it then dropped to 0.87 per cent in 2000/2001 that means that the number of dropouts fell almost to a third and this is considered a remarkable achievement.

Table 34 shows the fall in the percentage of dropouts in preparatory education to 3.13 per cent in 2000/2001 as opposed to 6.86 per cent in 1991/92. This suggests that the number of dropouts fell by less than half in the preparatory education stage.

Education Dualism

The pre-revolution education system has come under criticism for its duality. In other words it divided the educational process into four stages:

Table 33: Number and Percentage of Drop-outs (Girls and Boys) in Primary Education, 1991/92 to 2000-2001

The school year	Boys			Girls			Total		
	Registered	Drop-out	%	Registered	Drop-outs	%	registered	Drop-outs	%
1991/92-192/93	3599454	93717	2,60	2942755	67906	2,3	6542209	161623	2,47
1992/93-193/94	3721617	73553	1,98	3069511	136616	4,46	6791128	210169	3,09
1993/94-194/95	3843122	62143	1,62	3206427	39465	1,2	7049549	101608	1,44
1994/95-195/96	3968253	59528	1,50	3344785	33291	1	7313038	92819	1,27
1995/96-196/97	4033465	51381	1,3	3436972	26954	0,78	7470437	78335	1,05
1996/97-197/98	405602	38173	0,94	3488137	18794	0,54	7541739	56967	0,76
1997/98-198/99	4014780	48716	1,21	3484523	24457	0,70	7499303	73173	0,98
1998/99-199/2000	3918891	44116	1,13	3432227	22468	0,65	7351118	66584	0,91
1999/2000-2000/2001	3835956	41173	1,07	3389033	21419	0,63	7224989	62592	0,87

Source: Ministry of Education: Mubarak and education, 2001 (p.45)

Table 34: Number and Percentage of Drop-outs (Girls and Boys)in Secondary Schools from 1990/91 to 2000/2001

The school year	Boys			Girls			Total		
	Registered	Drop-outs	%	Registered	Drop-outs	%	registered	Drop-outs	%
1991/92-1992/93	1,222,886	70,034	5.73	996,097	82,122	8.24	2,218,983	152,156	6.86
1992/93-1993/94	1,216,689	64,081	5.30	996,253	49,801	5.00	2,212,942	113,882	5.15
1993/94-1994/95	1,282,462	53,787	4.19	1,037,632	34,378	3.30	2,320,094	88,165	3.80
1994/95-1995/96	1,287,447	73,051	5.67	1,075,314	48,388	4.50	2,362,761	121,439	5.14
1995/96-1996/97	1,326,359	62,783	4.70	1,125,527	36,738	3.66	2,451,926	69,521	4.06
1996/97-1997/98	1,366,672	50,842	5.72	1,178,497	34,100	2.90	2,545,165	85,038	3.34
1997/98-1998/99	1,437,985	53,700	3.73	1,248,967	33,105	2.65	2,686,952	86,805	3.23
1998/99-1999/2000	1,533,918	58,546	3.82	1,350,314	39,411	2.92	2,884,232	97,957	3.40
1999/2000-2000/2001	1,578,688	56,503	3.58	1,397,265	26,771	2.63	2,975,953	93,274	3.13

primary, preparatory, secondary and academic education with fees that only the children from high-income families could afford, while the technical education was the type of education confined to those coming from low-income and poor families. This biased policy resulted in a number of social and psychological ills which was reflected on the society as a whole. The reality, particularly in the past five years, is reminiscent of the pre-revolution situation. It has even become more acute and widely spread despite the state's efforts to enforce the principles of justice and equality in education and to pass the laws and legislations, which support this policy. However, Egypt is faced with varied forms of this duality:

- A state funded education catering for students who belong to medium and low–income families as opposed to private education for students from well-off families. In 1998-99 the number of private schools rose to 3,725 with 1,061,315 students (the specialised National Councils 1999).
- Secular educations catering for students from middle and upper middle classes as opposed to religious Azharite education whose students come from lower classes (5,148 schools with 1,340,521 students in 1999) (MOE 1998/99).
- A common education where those belonging to poor and middle–income families enrol as opposed to an experimental education with students from high-income background (396 schools with 123,553 students in 1998/99) (MOE 1999).
- An education whose language of learning is Arabic for lower and lower middle class students as opposed to education whose language of learning is foreign for students from richer backgrounds.

The Modest Status of the Technical Secondary Education:

Technical secondary education was the culmination of the 1952 revolution in the field of education. The Egyptian government valued its role in the preparation and training of skilled labourers and technicians who could contribute to the sustainable development process. Accordingly, the MOE outlined its educational plans in a way that would lead to the gradual increase of the numbers of students who enrol in this branch of secondary education and consequently decrease the number of those enrolled in the academic secondary education. The latter has attracted many students because it eventually leads to a university degree, a high social status and a prestigious salaried job whereas the technical secondary education is associated in the minds of many students and their families with a rather modest job and a low social status. Also the fact that it is connected with manual work made it unwelcome among many families. To implement the concept of equal opportunity in education, the ministry

decided that the determining factor in the distribution of students between the different branches of secondary education to be the GDR of the final year of the three-year preparatory education. This was set to be the yardstick with which to measure which branch of secondary education the student should be enrolled in.

Some studies (El-Shakily, op. cit.) have concluded that the majority of the sons and daughters of high and middle-income backgrounds enrol in the academic secondary schools with the assistance of their families through private tuition and non-school books, through both legal and illegal ways. On the other hand, the majority of students from low-income families have no place except in technical secondary schools. Therefore, this branch of secondary education represents a response to the growing social demand on education by the low-income families. There are a number of examples, which go to prove that the technical secondary education (68 per cent of the total number of students who enrol in secondary education) does not get the same attention which the academic secondary education enjoys. Almost 10 per cent of the technical secondary education students enrol in the agricultural branch of the secondary education mostly associated with development in the Egyptian society whereas almost 44.8 per cent of those students enrol in the commercial secondary education which is mostly associated with the non-productive services and jobs (Ali Al-Shiskiby 1985: 8).

Table 35: Distribution of Students in Academic and Technical Secondary Education in a Number of Governorates 1998/99

Governorate	Academic		Technical		Total
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	
Cairo	208,858	58.2	150150	41.8	359,008
Alexandria	75,617	52.1	69439	47.9	145,056
Albehira	41,956	23.1	139922	76.9	181,878
Beny Sweef	19,895	20.9	75222	79.1	95,878
Alsharkia	32,127	27.4	84934	72.1	117,067

Source: Ministry of education: the general department of statistics and computer, pre-university education, 1998/99

The Unemployment of Graduates

Poor planning of the education system—in light of the needs of the labour market and the growing social demand on education—coupled with a lack of educational and professional guidance for students resulted in

the growing rates of unemployment particularly among graduates. There has been an increase in the rates of unemployment during the past few years particularly among the graduates of the technical secondary education. In 1996 this percentage rose to 75 per cent of the total number of unemployed. This percentage, however, fell among the illiterate and those who could read and write (Table 36). In addition to this the rate of unemployment in 1995 reached 11.3 per cent of the total workforce (15-64). This increased among women to reach 24.1 per cent and also among the residents of the urban areas as a result of the continuous migration from the rural to urban areas (Table 37).

Table 36: Distribution of Unemployment According to the Education Level in 1986 and 1996

Year	Illiterate	Those who read and write	Education less than medium	Medium education	Higher education and above medium
1986	3	21	3	52	21
1996	1.2	1.1	1.4	75	21.5

Source: Badrawi, previous reference, p.9-10.

Table 37: Number of Graduates and the Employment Rate According to Gender, 1995

Gender	The number in hundreds	Percentage	Unemployment rate
Male	9,912	51.9	7.5
Female	9,192	48.1	24.1
Total	19,104	100	11.3

Source Badrawi: previous reference, p.8

The rise in the number of unemployed, particularly among the educated in the Egyptian society has resulted in crime, extremism, drug addiction, family problems as well as migration from rural to urban areas.

Illiteracy

Illiteracy has hindered the advancement of the Egyptian society. Despite the concerted efforts of the Egyptian government illiteracy remains the root of many of Egypt's problems. Various governments have promised to eradicate illiteracy, and funds have been dedicated to this, but without much result. The reasons for this might be bad planning and lack of serious initiatives to implement the programmes and campaigns aimed at

eradicating illiteracy, lack of coordination and lack of awareness among the illiterates of the importance of education. The illiteracy rate (for those 15 years and above) was almost 38.6 per cent in 1996. This percentage is higher among females than males and in rural and remote areas and in slum areas in the big cities than in urban areas with a medium to higher standard of living. Also among the workers and farmers more than among other professionals. This percentage is not small if we take into consideration the overall population, which has increased considerably. Arab statistics show that Egypt—the pioneer among the Arab states in the field of education and in whose universities many Arabs have received their education—is in an unenviable situation with regards to the problem of illiteracy. It comes only third to Sudan and Yemen in terms of the highest illiteracy rates in the whole of the Arab world. It has also the highest number of illiterates compared to the rest of the Arab countries.

There is a close correlation between the increase in illiteracy rates and the limited capacity to include all the children in grade one and also the increasing percentage of the dropouts from primary education. Statistics show that 1,374,768 children did not enrol in primary grade one and that 829,277 students (481,013 males, 438,264 females) dropped out of primary school from 1990/91 to 1996/97. There is almost a consensus among scientists that the illiterate person produces less and participates less in serving his society and has more problems than the literate one.

An Analysis of Education Financing in Egypt

Political Orientations

During the three decades which followed the 1952 revolution, the Egyptian government followed a developmental strategy, which depended on the public sector and gave special emphasis to social concerns. Priority was placed on setting up a comprehensive social infrastructure to develop human resources and raise the standard of living. Efforts were put into investing in the construction of schools nationwide. After the 1973 war, the government launched its new open door policy. The Egyptian economy expanded after this new policy was implemented, resulting in an increase of public sector resources. The investments in the social infrastructure reached unprecedented rates in the five-year plan 1981-82 to 1986-87.

About 22 per cent of the overall general investment programmes were directed to education, health, water and housing projects (World Bank 1991). The rates of those who enrolled in education increased at all levels. The number of children who enrolled in the primary education increased

from one million in 1952 to nearly 7 million in 1979 with an average annual increase of 5.1 per cent. The number of students enrolled in secondary education rose from 154,000 to 3,8 million with an annual rate of 9.1 per cent during the same period (WB 1991).

However, this remarkable increase did not last. After the collapse of the oil prices in 1982 Egypt's revenues reduced. Egyptians working abroad stopped investing in the country and foreign aid also reduced. During the 1980s the Egyptian economy went into a slow cycle and the real growth of the GDP reached less than 3 per cent annually in 1986. The investments fell drastically and the rate reached 25 per cent annually, the foreign debts reached 47 per cent billion US dollars (WB 1991).

All the economic sectors, including the education sector were affected by the economic deterioration. The Egyptian government signed an agreement with the IMF and the World Bank in 1991, which led to the application of the economic reform and the structural adjustment program, ERSAP. The implementation of ERSAP included the reform of the public sector, privatisation and the calling off of any control of prices in addition to giving a free hand to investments.

Fortunately, the education sector did not suffer as a result of those economic reforms. Instead the spending on education rose almost 55 per cent from 1990-91 to 1996-97. This new economic orientation, which was based on free market impacted the educational system and policies in Egypt. This was also reflected in the 'Mubarak and education: a look to the future (MOE 1992) document which outlined the priorities of the government in the education sector. The document put forward for the first time a number of suggestions, which dealt with the concept of free education:

- Free education in primary and prep schools
- Free education for the student who is committed to his social role as a student (note how vague this statement is)
- Those spending on private education during the first stages of education should not benefit from free education for their children during the secondary and university years.
- Fee-based higher education
- Bright students to enjoy free education at all levels and should be rewarded.

In addition to this, the document recommended that NGOs and businessmen should participate in financing education. These new concepts have had an impact in the selection of the policies of the education sector.

The Structure of Pre-university Education Financing

The financing of education in Egypt depends mainly on the state budget. There are also other resources in the budget of some other ministries, which are earmarked to training and coaching operations and funds from foreign aid, bilateral agreements and donations from regional and international organizations. Despite the remarkable increase in spending on education, there is still need for more assistance.

The Egyptian constitution in article number 20 stipulates that 'education in state schools is free on all different levels.' The education law number 139 passed in 1981 stipulates in its third article that 'pre-university education is a right to all citizens to be obtained in state schools for free. Students should not be asked to pay fees unless they are provided with educational or learning services'. The ministry of education delivers all the revenues for education to the state exchequer such as the re-registration fees, the textbooks for the private schools.

The increasing population has led an increase in the social demand on education particularly after the free education concept was inclusive of non-educational activities such as medical services, libraries, laboratories, insurance and publications (Al-Bahwashi 1988: 107). Salaries and bonuses for teachers accounted for almost 91 per cent of the total budget earmarked for education (Ministry of Education 1996: 25).

The remarkable increase in the ministry of education budget (pre-university education) is shown in Table 38.

Table 38: Development Budget Allocated for Education

The year	The amounts earmarked of education sector
1990/91	2,592,278,841
1991/92	4,655,844,270
1992/93	5,949,738,134
1993/94	7,262,767,259
1994/95	8,807,830,260
1995/96	10,535,797,560
1996/97	12,107,080,860
1997/98	13,304,964,330
1998/99	14,677,865,330
1999/2000	16,186,535,400

Source: Ministry of Education, MDE 2000.

Despite the huge increases in the education budget, the sector still needs more resources.

Sources of Financing Education

There are three basic sources of financing education in Egypt:

- The general finance: which consists of the ministry of education share in the state budget, the educational project assistance fund for pre-university education and the foreign aid and assistance.
- Private sector
- Family

The state is the primary source of education financing in Egypt. Family spending on education has increased during the past few years. The private sector's contribution to education in Egypt is small. The state schools represent more than 90 per cent of the total number of pre-university schools in Egypt. The private schools students represent only 7.2 per cent of the total demand on education (1998-99 MOE Statistics). The number of students in private universities reached 12 per cent of the total number of university students in Egypt during 1996-97 (World Bank Statistics).

Egypt increased its allocation to the education sector from 10.2 per cent in 1990-91 to 18.4 per cent in 1996/97. This increase is remarkable given that the overall budget for education in the OECD member states is only about 7 per cent. Egypt's education budget reached 13,295 million Egyptian pounds in 1997-98, almost 20 per cent of the overall state budget. The overall increase of the education budget during the period 1991-97 rose to 59 per cent with fixed prices and with an average annual increase of 8 per cent.

In the light of new economic and political orientations which placed special emphasis on the role of the private sector in financing education, a fund for assisting education was set up in 1989. This fund seeks additional resources to finance education by arguing that since education benefits the society as a whole, society ought to contribute to it. This fund raises funds for school construction and refurnishing and maintenance of research and educational centres.

The Fund's financing sources include:

- The spending and imposed fees according to law number 139 passed in 1981.
- Registration fees in secondary schools.
- Fees imposed on the industrial buildings affiliated to the fund.

- Fees paid by students for extra tuition. It was estimated that almost half of the students attend private tuition. Books and school uniforms are no longer provided free of charge (EHDR 1997/98).This contradicts the concept of free education as stated in the constitution. It also contradicts the new concepts put forward in the document of Mubarak and education, which places special emphasis on free education for all. Unfortunately, a number of researchers and studies have concluded that education fees, however small, lead to a decline in the chances of those enrolled in primary education particularly among the poor families (El-Baradei 1994 & El-Baradie 1995).
- A quota estimated at 10 per cent of the revenues of the local administration in governorates and villages
- A quota estimated at 10 per cent of the imposed fees according to law number 106 issued in 1976 concerning the standards of school construction
- Financial and other contributions from members of the society
- Revenues of the investment Fund
- Aid and donations

The total revenues of the educational services fund is estimated at 50 million Egyptian pounds and this represents only 0.3 per cent of the state budget (EHDR 97/98). Though donations have notably increased, they only represent a minor part of the overall spending on education in Egypt. It is also difficult to obtain data on foreign financing of education in Egypt. The available data only shows that the amount of the external financial aid geared towards the education sector reached 2,631,886 pounds in 1991 while loans were estimated at 756,996 (Zidan 2000).

Egypt has benefited from technical and financial aid from several donors. Of note was the primary education programme launched in 1981-84 with funding from USAID. This programme aided in the construction of several schools, which were provided with equipment and educational material. UNICEF helped in setting up a number of community schools and one-class schools in rural areas particularly in Sohag, Assuit and Qena governorates which had a limited number of schools and built 100 schools in 1996. With support from the World Bank and the European Union, the government launched the Education Enhancement Program (EEP) at a cost of 835 million US dollars in 1996. This project aimed to improve the coverage of primary education, the quality of student learning, and the efficiency of the education system. This project covered the ministry's five-year plan (1997-2001) for compulsory education (WB, SAR/EEP 1996). Education financing has also been received from the IMF and UNESCO.

The Egyptian family spends a lot on education. The percentage of the family spending on education from 1981-82 to 1990-91 was huge for poor families in the urban and rural areas more than for the non-poor (El-Baradei 1994). Most of the educational costs are a result of the privatisation of the educational system which was reflected in the increase of the costs for the individual in the form of private tuition or books. In other words, the contribution of the family in financing education has been directed towards what could be described as 'the market parallel to education' instead of assisting and supporting the state financing of education. The education costs borne by the family reached 35 per cent of the average costs of the government spending on education for each student (Table 39).

Table 39: Annual Rate of Education Cost Per Student in the Different Education levels (in Egyptian pounds)

Education Level	Family Costs	Government's Costs
Primary Education	243.25	459
Secondary education	4,233.39	911
Higher Education	1,337.37	3,467
The total	5,814.01	4,837

Source: Government's Spending, the family sector costs (1997-98, EHDR)

As for the percentage of spending on education, available data indicates that private tuition takes 28 per cent, followed by educational spending, 22 per cent, and then school uniform, 17 per cent. The family bears the bulk of financing education in Egypt (estimated at 40 per cent), unfortunately this finance is geared towards private educational activities which do not contribute in improving the educational process, on the contrary it has an adverse effect on this process.

Planning

There are a number of factors which control the process of education planning: social demand, the needs of the labour market and analysis of the cost and the outcome.

Social demand is the yardstick most used to measure the process of planning in different countries of the world. It provides for strong incentives to expand the educational services offered to the public and to achieve certain educational goals that aim to develop character. It also measures

what the needs of the educational process of curriculum, equipment, buildings and other necessities to put the educational institutions into operation. This also includes the cadre of teachers who are able to secure an educational service in the best way possible. Therefore, international organizations such as UNESCO have recommended it as a way to spread education as one of the basic human rights particularly the economic and social rights (Husein & Poslethwaite 1994).

The planning of education in Egypt relies on the social demand criteria. It aims to eradicate illiteracy among adults. However, social demand often comes under criticism on the basis that it does not consider the contradictions which the society faces in the use of its limited resources (Husen & Postletheaite 1994). The planning of education in Egypt aims to :

- Achieve a balance between the different education levels.
- Strike a balance between the different branches of education.
- Strike a balance between the quality and quantity in education.
- Strike a balance between education and the future human needs.
- Plan for technical education and professional training according to the general targets of the education system and to satisfy the economic, social, national and regional needs.
- Integrate the regular and non-regular education within the framework of continuous education. (Ministry of education, the five year plan project to reform the education system in Egypt 1988, 17-20)

Suggested Alternatives

The current situation of pre-academic education in Egypt suggests the necessity to secure a group of alternatives and solutions to reform the management of financing pre-academic education; some of those alternatives include the following:

1. Reconsider the distribution of the available financial allocations on the different aspects of the education sector in light of specific standards and common bases to estimate the actual costs of the educational unit in each sector and work to bridge the wide gap between all of those sectors.
2. End the employment inflation and the overstaffing in the different education sectors. There is need to achieve a reasonable balance between the different sections of the budget and to support the allocations of the second and third sections, as they are important in securing the educational services and continue to upgrade and improve them.

3. Release the sections of the official budget from the imposed sanctions in a way that makes it easier to move from one section to the other to face up to the changing requirements in the educational services and the new activities.
4. Encourage individuals, parents, associations, organizations, companies, professional syndicates and production associations to construct schools and private institutions.
5. Implement the part-time education system being applied in western countries and Japan since it has a number of advantages such as: linking education and work, releasing the pressure on the education sector, reducing the costs of education due to the lack in the number of teachers and the number of school buildings and reducing the actual school time (the Specialized National schools, 1996, 187-189).
6. Increase the current spending on pre-academic education and increase the investment allocations for school construction, infrastructure and increase the education share of the official spending and encourage private education.
7. Maximize the benefits of the finance and efforts of Arab and foreign or international organizations and try to make the maximum benefit of available finances.
8. Maximize the benefits from the business sector, banks and private sector organizations so that they contribute to pre-academic education budget and allocate part of its profits to finance a national fund which brings together all the sources likely to finance this type of education.
9. Maximize the contribution of organizations, professional syndicates, the Egyptian scientists union and Egyptian clubs and international organizations which are based abroad in the form of donations, grants, material services, laboratory equipment and financing the purchase of scientific books and references.
10. Set up a clear set of standards to evaluate the policies and the alternative for education finance that would benefit those who plan to know whether or not it has achieved its goals and its possible impact on educating girls and the marginalized groups.
11. Educate families, local communities and schools.
12. Introduce a system of bonuses for those working in the different levels of education.
13. Ensure the effectiveness and performance of superintendents and teachers.
14. Ensure students' attendance and participation in schoolwork.
15. Encourage parents and other individuals in local communities to participate in school work (Ali 1999:19).

Chapter 2

Monograph: Analyzing Teachers' Wages

Introduction

The increase in educational cost is an indicator of an increase in educational productivity and quality. The increase in the total annual educational cost points to the extent of adherence to education. The achievement of the quantitative and qualitative educational goals indicates quality education and cost-effectiveness. However, decreasing educational cost while maintaining the students' level of education provides evidence to the cost-effectiveness of the educational inputs. The development of the educational cost budget offers an initial idea about the harmony of the cost structure and its annual growth. Since this is not sufficient criteria, it is necessary to conduct an in-depth analysis for each cost item in order to define the quality of the educational inputs.

As shown in Table 40, there was an increase in the total expenditure from 2 billion pounds in 1990/1991 to 9 billion in 1997/98 with an average change rate of 30 per cent over the whole period. It is necessary to consider this change in light of the inflation rates which prevailed throughout the same period which ranged from 18 per cent to 22 per cent to find out the actual cash change in the total educational cost. The allocation of educational wages from the total cost ranged from 76 per cent to 79 per cent. The cost of the first item increased in higher rates than other expenditure items because of the increase of labour in the educational sector and to the annual increments of salaries and wages i.e. social allowances (to face up to the hard living conditions). The allocation of expenditure on educational supplies and requirements (goods & services) ranged from 12 to 15 per cent. Expenditure on this item has remarkably increased over the past years due to technological developments in schools as well as on the central and regional administration levels.

Table 40: Development of Educational Cost Budget for Pre-University Level Distributed by Expenditure Items

Years	Total Budget %	1st Item %	2nd Item %	3rd Item %	4th Item %
1990/91	2.297	1.822	0.280	0.173	0.022
1994/99	5.611	3.832	0.965	0.812	0.002
1997/98	9.051	6.571	1.327	1.150	0.005

Source: Ministry of Education: Pre-University Education Statistics 1997/1998, General Administration of Information and Computer, various pages.

The allocation of expenditure on educational buildings and equipment ranged between 7.5 and 12.7, which is insufficient, given that 11.5 million students were admitted in 1990/91 and this figure rose to 14.7 million students by 1997/98. The increase in total cost reveals a problem in allocating the appropriate cost to education. Certain inputs are over budgeted which reflects negatively on the quality of undergraduate education.

Following is an analysis of the educational inputs in the undergraduate education sector in Egypt in 1997/1998:

Educational Wages

Educational wages are analysed to identify the extent to which wages contribute to the goals of workers according to their levels and specializations as well as the fulfilment of the qualitative and quantitative goals of the educational system.

Educational Wages According to the Educational Cost Centers (Direct and Indirect)

Based on job descriptions, the appropriate wages are defined in accordance with the responsibilities and efforts required by each job. Job assessment in the pre-university education system in Egypt revealed that the teaching staff contribute to the direct and effective execution of educational activities. Jobs in the educational system in Egypt can be arranged according to centers of direct and indirect educational cost as shown in Table 41.

Teaching jobs are centers of direct cost within schools; whereas school management jobs, school districts, educational directorates, central administrations and cooperative authorities are centers of indirect cost. As a result of this cost categorization, teachers' wages should receive a

bigger portion from the budget allocated for expenditure because they are the majority and the ones chiefly responsible for passing societal values to students. Education is one of the professions that has a high labour "turnover" and so a fair wage must be considered to attract competent teachers.

Table 41: Centers of Direct and Indirect Educational Cost

Cost Center	Direct Centers	Indirect Centers
Schools	Teachers	School Admin. Jobs
Educational Admin. Educational Admin. on the neighbourhood level, central directorates and cooperative authorities		Educational Admin jobs in its various specializations and at all levels

An analysis of educational wages according to direct and indirect cost centers of the educational system during the period 1997–98 is presented in Table 42. It sheds light on the repercussions of such allocation and on whether the wages achieve the personal goals of workers or the goals of the undergraduate education in Egypt.

Table 42: Distribution of Educational Wages on Direct and Indirect Cost Centers (1997/98)

Education Cost Centers	No. (10)	%		%
Teachers	714,316	61.2	3,279,145,830	49.9
School Admin Jobs	363,349	31.1	1,662,572,800	20.3
Educational Admin Jobs	64,126	5.5	295,714,530	4.5
MOE Directorates Jobs	18,139	1.6	85,428,642	1.3
Total of MOE Directorates	1,159,930	99.4	5,322,862,330	81
Central Admin & Supporting Authorities Jobs	7,134	0.6	1,248,572,000	19
Total of Central Admin	7,134	0.6	1,248,572,000	19
Total of Educational Jobs Cost Centers	1,167,064	100	6,571,434,330	100

Source: Ministry of Education: Undergraduate Education Statistics 1997/1998, General Administration of Information and Computer, various pages.

Teachers

Teachers in undergraduate education represented 61 per cent of the total workers in this sector. Their levels of education varied between university degrees in Education, university degrees in other disciplines, Teaching Diplomas, and High-School Certificates. Teachers are distributed into five job categories each with a teaching schedule: class teachers of various subjects 81 per cent, teachers (4.5 per cent), supervisors (12 per cent), school under-secretary (2.3 per cent), and the school head-master (45 per cent). The promotion from a teaching position to a school administrative post impedes the job progression of many teachers. Some promoted teachers refuse to take up administrative posts because teaching provides them with extra income through private tuition.

The student/teacher ratio reached 20/1 at all educational levels, 24/1 in primary education, decreased at the secondary level in its different branches, and went down to 1/5 in schools for special education. This rate can considerably increase if it were evaluated 'on the basis of educational material'.

The average teacher wage depends on qualifications, years of experience, and the teaching level at which the teacher has been assigned. The lowest average wage is at the elementary level; it then increases at the preparatory level and more at the secondary and technical levels.

School Management

The number of workers in school management was 31.1 per cent of the total labour force taking up. 25.3 per cent of the total labour cost in the pre-university educational sector. The average wage of workers follows the same distribution of the average wage of teachers. Headmasters earn the most while the general workers earn the least. Likewise the average wages are at their lowest at the elementary level, slightly higher at the preparatory level and are highest at the secondary level.

School Districts

The number of the administrative staff in School districts was 5.5 per cent of the whole. There is a high number of employees and administrators because the school districts retained school management tasks, not to mention its traditional non-technological method of management. There is no data available on the qualifications of the high school and educational management levels. It is noted however that the competence of this category is very similar to that of the teachers. The cost of the educational administration wages is approximately 4.5 per cent of the

total labour cost. The average wage rate varies at this level according to the previously mentioned categorization within this level and according to the job groups.

Directorates of Education

The number of workers in 27 directorates of education is divided into 3 main categories: Administrative Leadership on the directorate level 7 per cent, employees 87 per cent, and workers 6 per cent. The labour cost on the directorates level reached 1.3 per cent of the total cost, whereas teachers' expenditure was 49.9 per cent of the total cost. This reflects an imbalance in the labour cost structure of the pre-university education sector.

Central Administration and Supporting Authorities

The number of workers in the Central Administration (the Ministry's Secretariat and the Supporting Authorities (General Authority for educational Buildings) The number reached 7,134 representing 6 per cent of the total labour cost of the undergraduate education sector. The cost of wages of the Central Administration and the Supporting Authorities reached 19 per cent of the total labour cost. Thus the total labour cost at the four administrative levels is 50.1 per cent, which is a high percentage by international standards be it in similar countries or in more developed countries.

Wages by their Basic Components

The first item (wages) of the budget consists of the following three groups:

1) Wages, allowances and cash benefits (basically what the workers receive in cash to meet their living expenses);
2) Benefits in kind: they are allocated to provide workers with social services that are associated with the educational activity and are binding to the administration;
3) Insurance benefits: they are considered a kind of incentive that gives the worker a sense of security.

The three groups aim at creating a sense of loyalty to the educational system and a feeling of self-content to the workers, which ultimately meet the basic human needs of the workers. Educational wages are analyzed by their basic component in the following table.

Table 43: Total Educational Expenditure on Wages, Benefits, Allowances, and Cash Benefits in 1998/97 (in Million Pounds)

Group	Amount	Percentage
Group (1) Wages, Allowances and Cash Benefits	5,158,226,92	83.7
Group (2) Benefits in Kind	220,475	0.1
Group (3) Insurance Benefits	997,564,000	16.2
Total Educational Expenditure, item (1)	6,156,010,401	

Source: (Ministry of Finance, 1996)

The percentage of wages, allowances, and cash benefits is 83.7 per cent of the total cost of workers' wages in undergraduate education. Benefits represent the biggest cost. The major items of total workers cost at MOE are those for teaching, supervision, examinations, and teachers' incentives. The average monthly benefits range from 100 pounds to 300 pounds according to the teacher's job group. The benefits in kind are usually less than the cash benefits in the total cost of wages. The insurance benefits represent 16 per cent of the total cost of wages. They include insurance against occupational hazards. Since the insurance does not cover unemployment, it is necessary to reconsider the components and volume of the insurance incentives offered to the workers.

Impact of Low Wages for Teachers

The high turnover of teachers in the pre-university education sector and the decline of qualified staff to teach are due to the low income that the teaching career provides in comparison with other careers. To make up for this teachers purposely limit their teaching efficiency inside the classroom in order to resort to private tuition outside the school working hours, others take on second jobs after school.

In addition, teachers immigrate or simply request to be seconded to other countries where teaching provides a better income. The main reason behind the teachers' low income is that salary increase is directly tied to the academic qualifications and years of experience.

The teachers' salary structure also suffers from a shortcoming that goes back to historical and social build-up. In the past, teachers' salaries were equal to those of other public employees, and then their salaries became less due to differences in the number of years for promotion. The teachers' salary structure is that it does not favour teachers in remote areas on their peers in urban areas.

Moreover, there is a big difference in teachers' salaries in public schools and in private and pioneer schools. Teachers in the latter schools receive 75% of their basic salary for teaching in a foreign language, while the rest of the teachers receive 50% of their basic salaries for simply working in such schools. In general we can say that there is a correlation between the teacher's background (academic, economic, cultural, etc) and the student's academic achievement.

The annual increase of salaries and wages within pre-university education sector is higher in educational administration than in teaching. This means that the teacher feels a slight increase in his income given the creeping inflation in living expenses. This economic pressure influences the teacher's performance and efficiency if he is to solely depends on his salary.

Working Two Jobs

When teachers engages in another job after the school working hours, their income increases at the expense of their health. This inevitably has a negative impact on the teacher's performance in the classroom because the time that should be allocated for "career development" will be eliminated. In light of the above, the teacher's performance curve will rise at the beginning then it will sustain at a certain point, and then it will go down depicting lack of effectiveness in quality and quantity due to his exhaustion.

The Critical Issue of Private Tuition

Some teachers in the classrooms waste most of the time allocated for teaching on activities to create the need for private tuition to generate extra income. This negative practice has decreased the teaching performance. The minister of education in a meeting with the teachers on 14-4-1999 (Shura Council 1998,115) stated that 10 per cent of the students receive private tuition. The average spending of the family on private tuition for one student reached 4000 L.E (almost $800) annually. He added that 5 per cent of the teachers earn 6 billion L.E. from private tuition and this deprives almost 90 per cent of the students from their natural right to education. Some of the adverse effects of the private tuition are as follows:

- Disrespect for teachers as they become more like a commodity in the students' view.
- Leakage of exam questions.
- Teachers favour those students who enrol in private tutorial classes.

This is reflected mostly on the oral tests and the students' activities during the year (ministerial decision (No. 109/1996)

- Cheating during exam time is also widespread
- Private tuition does not assist students to improve their character
- Through private tuition students store information only to recall it during exam time.
- Private tuition is a waste of the resources of the Egyptian family and also a waste of what the state has allocated in its budget for the education sector (The Specialized National Councils, 1998, 64-65)
- Private tuition leads to an abuse of both the concept of free education and the equal opportunity principle since most of the parents are unable to provide their children with private tuition, especially those of low-income level. Some non-educationalists have used it as a way to make profits. The ministry shut down some of the centres of private tuition on the bases that they are against a number of laws most recent of which is law 139/1981 (MOE, law No. 139/1981, article 1). This article has stated that education is free for all and outlined the additional fees, insurance fees and the conditions for exemption from those fees.

Some teachers exert physical and psychological pressures on the students to create the need for private tuition. This bad behaviour is a bad example to the students, influencing their own behaviour negatively.

Generally, private tuition is a national problem, which poses a threat to the educational process in its essence and defies education democratization. It does not only represent an imbalance in the equal opportunity concept and social justice tilting in favour of the able, but it also represents a huge economic burden on the indirect educational costs.

A team of consultants estimated that the Egyptian family's indirect costs of education are almost 30 per cent of its budget. This defies the free education concept. It also burdens the poor families and might even force them to take their children out of school and probably out of the education process altogether. It also indicates that poor families are incapable of spending on education more than they already do now.

Suggested Solutions

Develop a new Salary Structure

Developing a new salary system for undergraduate education that will remunerate the workers with fair and sufficient wages in comparison to other public employees within the government.

Design a Standard Cost System

A standard cost system will rationalize and optimize the cost of education. It will also evaluate the cost of education based on the experiences of specialists; and allocate costs on items such as personnel, supplies, investment expenditure, capital transformation, ...etc. in the most cost-effective manner.

Restructure Pre-university Education

The suggested restructuring attempts to apply efficient organizational criteria based on renewing responsibilities, compensations of authorities, and terminating the services of unneeded administrative labour.

Chapter 3

Reporting

Reporting on the Operations Related to the Construction, Delivery and Management of School-Buildings

Prior to describing the operations, measures, problems, and solutions related to the conceptualization, financing and management of schools, it is necessary to highlight the following points:

- The decision of building a school in Egypt is a central issue that follows the priorities of the educational policy represented by the Ministry of Education in Cairo.
- Building public schools is also a central issue undertaken by the General Authority for Educational Buildings (GAEB) within the Ministry of Education. The process follows specific criteria that are in line with the educational phase for which the school is built. These criteria are identical throughout Egypt.
- The measures and operations undertaken for the preparatory and secondary phases are identical to those for the elementary phase.

Hence, we shall present in this report all the measures that are taken to set the criteria of school construction, methods of financing, expenditure process, and management of the financial resources within the constructed schools.

General Authority for Educational Buildings (GAEB)

GAEB was established in 1988 by the Presidential decision No. 448. Its mission is to plan and design educational buildings, develop criteria and specifications of the design, and finally build and equip educational buildings. To achieve its mission, GAEB currently uses an "Educational Map" technique that covers all governorates in Egypt. Following is the description of GAEBs work:

1) To set policies and general planning measures of educational buildings by using the "Educational Map" technique in order to:

- Identify the needs of educational buildings in each governorate,
- Evaluate the requirements for application and execution,
- Define the execution schedule.

2) To conduct studies needed to identify the educational buildings criteria and specifications in Egypt in accordance with the educational systems and curricula. The differences in urban and rural areas are to be taken into account as well as the diversified climate and nature conditions all over Egypt.
3) To supervise the establishment of educational buildings as per the preconceived plans. Specialized experienced companies from the private sector, are required by the law, to undertake construction of the educational buildings.
4) To repair and maintain the MOE educational buildings.
5) To oversee the training of employees and technicians in the educational buildings sector in order to optimize their efficiency.
6) To design equipment, furniture, and various educational devices within the MOE and to supervise its classifications and production according to given specifications.
7) To establish a central data bank to provide decision makers with the necessary information and data; to enhance communication among the different sections of GAEB; and to facilitate the information exchange among all partners.
8) To establish a section for international cooperation which aims at coordinating the schedules of loans between GAEB and donor agencies.

Describing the Operations Related to the Construction, Hand Over and Management of School-Buildings

Once a school is assigned to be constructed, GAEB is involved in many operations from the early stage of planning through designing to school delivery for management. These operations can be described in the framework of these steps:

1. After the allocation of the land on which the school is to be constructed, the school is registered under the projects of the educational directorate.
2. The GAEB branch in the governorate studies the data submitted for the construction of the school in order to set a priority for execution and to identify the number of classrooms needed.

3. The GAEB branch makes a site visit and checks the land's dimensions.
4. The GAEB branch submits to the private contractors a blueprint of a suggested model in order for them to do a soil test report.
5. The Projects Administration submits a memorandum to the Head of GAEB in Cairo requesting his approval to announce the project in the local newspapers as a tender.
6. Once the project is assigned to a contractor, the construction process begins under the supervision of GAEB's engineers.
7. Upon starting construction, the MOE directorate follows up with GAEB on a monthly basis.
8. Once the construction is completed and the school is ready to be delivered or handed over, a committee composed of the Educational Directorate (managerial) and GAEB (technical) receives the school from the contractor. The contractor gets partially paid for a period of one year until the entire completion and delivery of the school.
9. The school operates for a period of one year. If any damages occur, the contractor is responsible for the full repair at his own expense unless the damage is caused by external factors.
10. Once the school building is handed over, GAEB ensures, within a period of 7–15 days, that the school is equipped with the required furniture.
11. The afternoon-shift students at the neighbouring school move to the newly built school operating in its full capacity in terms of teachers, administration, staff and workers such that both schools operate on a morning-shift basis only.
12. If the purpose of building the new school is to minimize the density of students, then students form the neighbouring schools can move to the new school at the consent of their parents.
13. If the school is built in a deprived area, students register at the consent of their parents. The needed teachers are transferred from neighbouring schools; or new ones are assigned provided that their accommodation is secured as soon as the school operates.
14. The school is supplied with academic textbooks and other operational requirements from the Directorate's budget.

Before handing over the school GAEB announces to the school district the preliminary delivery date to identify the school-headmaster to be responsible for the delivery and the school district assigns a school-manager or a headmaster, and a secretary to receive the school temporarily.

Some of school districts in governorates expressed some important notes like:

1. The school building should be delivered to the building department in the school district since it is the specialized department.
2. Sometimes the operation of preliminary delivery faces some problems leading to postponing work.
3. It is preferable not to subdivide the operation of building delivery as it should be the wholly delivery of the entire school (buildings, furniture, libraries and laboratories).

Cost Analysis of School-Buildings and Equipments

Investment in school buildings can be displayed in the various kinds of allocations and costs resulting from the acquisition of educational fixed assets (land, educational buildings, equipments, ... etc.). Balancing the allocations of investment, in terms of adequate financing and the efficient use of resources are the main factors for providing fully equipped schools for students at all education levels.

Studying the investment allocations, which is the basic cost in building and equipping schools, has to be done in light of the following points:

1. Adequate expenditure towards pre-university education;
2. Problems resulting from the deficiency of investment expenditure;
3. Suggested alternatives to enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of investment expenditure in undergraduate education.

Adequate Expenditure for Pre-university Education

As the pre-university education system embraces several levels (general education, technical with different branches) each with its own characteristics, it is necessary to build an adequate amount of schools and upgrade the quality of education itself to face the increase of enrolment in education.

Within the context of Education for All, the elementary education aims at absorbing all children of compulsory education. The secondary education (general or technical) absorbs annually an increasing number of students providing them with the required classrooms, labs and equipments to enable them to join the labour market or to pursue further education. Table 44 illustrates the development of pre-university enrolment and investment expenditure during the period (1992/93 – 1996/97).

Table 44: Pre-university Enrolment and Total Expenditure Period (1992/93–1996/97)

Years	Total Students	Growth Rate	No. of Classrooms	No. of Schools	Total Expenditure as perBudget
1992/93	12,106,166	4.4	234,203	26,217	569,930,000
1993/94	13,156,577	4.5	315,563	26,877	610,781,000
1994/95	13,753,394	1.2	329,311	28,205	812,938,000
1995/96	13,923,845	6.5	325,005	29,743	152,494,000
1986/97	14,822,280	2	342,557	30,570	952,883,000

Source: Ministry of Education: Pre-University Education Statistics 92/93–96/97, General Administration of Information and Computer, 97/98.

The rise of enrolment and investment expenditure leads us to conclude the following facts:

- The number of pupils and students increased from 12.6 millions in 1992/1993 to 14.8 millions in 1996/1997, i.e. with an increase of 2.2 million students.
- The investment expenditure increased from 569.9 million pounds in 1992/1993 to 952.9 millions in 1996/1997, i.e. with an increase of 382.9 million pounds.
- This indicates the deficiency of investment expenditure in facing the increase of enrolment in pre-university education.
- The increase in enrolment of 2.2 million students requires the construction of at least 2961 schools with the capacity to accommodate 1750 students of which cost exceeds 3 million pounds. The latter amount equals the total of actual expenditure during the whole period versus the estimated expenditure outlined in the budget.

Based on the follow-up reports (MOE, 1998), the amount of total investment expenditure during 1997/1998 reached 1,086,369,000 L.E. whereas the estimated expenditure for the same year according to the budget is 1,149,000 L.E. with a difference of 63,130,000 million L.E.

Table 45: Investment expenditure distributed within the Ministry of Education

	Pounds	Percentage
- Secretariat and Supporting Authorities	7,730,000	7
- Supporting Authorities in MOE Directorates	3,550,000	4
- Schools Construction for different phases	1,075,089,000	9.98
Actual Total Expenditure	1,086,369,000	

The above Actual Total Expenditure shows that only 1.1% of the total investment expenditure was allocated to the MOE's Secretariat and Supporting Authorities.

Table 46: Components of expenditure on schools

Area	Cost in L.E	Percentage
Land	12,666	1.3
Purchasing Buildings	827,774	88
Equipment	48,512	5.2
Furniture and Tools	2,123	50
Administrative Expenditure	-	-
Supplies	15,485	2
Research		
Wages		
Fixed Total Investments	956,560,000	

It is clear that the cost of land does not exceed 1.3 per cent of total Investments expenditure. This cost covers the fees of registration and preparation of the land for construction. It does not represent its real value in fixed prices or in current prices because the land allocated for constructing schools is considered a public utility. The construction cost represents 88 per cent of investments expenditure, while equipment occupies 5.5 per cent and the administrative expenditure occupies 2 per cent of total investments.

Table 47: Expenditure on the education levels.

Total expenditure on	In pounds	Percentage
MOE's Secretariat & Related Authorities	730	0.7
MOE's Directorates	3,550	0.4
Preschool Education	1,132	0.01
Primary Education	366,163	33.7
Preparatory Education	262,765	24.2
Secondary Education / General	43,787	4.0
Secondary Education/ Industrial Branch	182,303	16.8
Secondary Education/ Commercial Branch	82,987	7.6
Secondary Education/ Agricultural Branch	12,480	1.1
Special Education	1,296	0.01
Per Classroom	12,000	1.1
Total Investment Expenditure	1,079,369	99.62

Table 48: Evolution of Enrolment in Pre-university Education (1996/97–1997/98)

Education level	Enrolment		Transformations
	1996/1997	1997/98	
Preschool	316,848	328,140	+ 11,339
Primary	7,499,303	7,351,118	- 148,185
Preparatory	3,927,445	4,152,624	+ 225,179
Secondary/ General	908,493	968,708	+ 60,215
Secondary/ Industrial	814,767	837,325	+ 22,558
Secondary/Commercial	796,950	829,866	+32,916
Secondary/ Agricultural	181,411	185,141	+ 3,730
Per Classroom	37,602	47,550	+ 9,948
Special Education	26,001	27,907	+ 1,906
Total	14,728,773	14,728,379	+ 219,606

Source: MOE, Bulletin No. 32 dated 1 September 1999 for all public schools and school districts in terms of fees, fines and subscriptions against extra services. Specialized National Councils: The 26th session, Cairo, 1999, p. 5.

The schools where the full-academic-day system is applied constitute 38 per cent of total schools accepting 34 per cent of total students, while the morning-shift schools constitute 32 per cent of total schools accepting

28 per cent of total students. The evening-shift schools reached 28 per cent of total schools accepting 21 per cent of total students, while the two-shift schools reached 36 per cent of total schools accepting 30 per cent of total students.

The percentage of schools which do not apply the full-academic-day system is 62 per cent of total schools accepting 66 per cent of total students and including industrial schools 32 per cent accepting 28 per cent of students, evening schools accepting 8 per cent of students, and two-shift schools 21 per cent accepting 30 per cent of total students. Schools applying a morning shift, an evening shift, or two shifts are located in underprivileged or popular areas and they accept students of low / middle income backgrounds. The school is considered to compensate for the leisure and educational facilities that these areas usually lack.

Shrinking the studying time of students affects their achievement levels, more so with the absence of extra curricular activities (NCERD 1991: 147), which are often cancelled due to lack of time or to the non-availability of places to practice them. Classrooms are frequently built on playground spaces to a point where the school district had to prohibit this practice by law (MOE, 1994).

Lack of extra curricular activities places negative psychological effects on students that are best manifested in aggressive behaviour, drugs and desertion from schools. (NCERD 1991: 147). Furthermore, the frequency of employing the educational building for two shifts or more reduces the efficiency of the building to a point where certain schools operate in the same buildings.

The percentage of schools operating in buildings that they do not own is 18 per cent of total schools. This indicates that the educational process focuses on occupying classrooms and neglecting intra and extra curricular activities. The percentage of schools operating on their own property is 23 per cent of total schools, which means that more than one school, share the same building. This leads to quick depreciation and amortization of the buildings and their facilities, which eventually reflects negatively on the educational process.

Table 49: Public Schools Distributed by their Property During the Academic Year 1998/99

Education Level	Schools operating on their own	%	Schools operating within other schools	%	Schools operating in other buildings	%	Total
Primary	8,525	59	3,531	25	2,290	16	14,346
Preparatory	3,693	57	1,341	21	1,499	23	6,533
Secondary/ General	873	71	177	15	174	14	124
Secondary/ Industrial	443	62	124	18	143	20	710
Secondary/ Agricultural	77	50		38	39	25	154
Secondary/ Commercial	456	66	121	18	113	16	690
Total of Pre-University Education	14,067	59	5,332	23	4,258	18	23,657

Source: Ministry of Education: Pre-University Education Statistics 1998/1999, Public Administration of Information and Computer, 1999.

In light of the above analyses, it is clear that there is an educational crisis caused by the gap between the constant increase of students' enrolment at all education levels and shortage in public schools. Similarly it could be stated that the insufficient accommodation of school buildings for education levels following elementary stages, when comparing population categories (6-12 years), (12-15 years) and (15-18 years) registered in elementary, preparatory and secondary schools respectively.

Application of More Than One Study-Shift School

In an effort to meet the constant increase of students enrolment at all levels in pre-university education, school districts applied more than one study shift in certain schools. Table 50 illustrates the distribution of schools by study shift for the year 1997/1998 (MOE 1999).

Overcrowded Classrooms

The scarcity of educational buildings is the cause of overcrowded classrooms especially in areas where enrolment rate in primary education is high. Table 51 illustrates the mean density of classrooms for all pre-university education levels for the year 1997/1998.

Table 50: Distribution of School Shifts for the Year 1997/98; (%)

Phase	Type of School							
	One-day		Morning-Shift		Evening-Shift		Two-Shift	
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students
Primary	37	35	44	44	14	16	4	5
Preparatory	37	33	36	35	17	18	10	14
Secondary-General	64	61	28	23	1	1	6	1
Secondary Industrial	22	15	23	16	8	3	47	66
Secondary Agricultural	47	44	41	37	2	32	10	18

Table 51: Density of Classrooms at All Education Levels for the Years 1997/1998

Primary	Preparatory	Secondary General	Secondary Industrial	Secondary Commercial	Secondary Agricultural
43	43	39	35	38	36

Source: NCERD 1993

The mean density of classroom in elementary education was 43 students per class, which is very high for this kind of education level. All the densities for secondary level were high as well for this education level as it is supposed to build new schools and develop the students' skills. In general this fact is confirmed by the median – and this is one of the disadvantages of the median – which includes extremely high mean densities exceeding 70 students in some of the governorates.

Another problem inherent in the classroom's high density is the performance of the teacher who wastes most of the time allocated for teaching to control the classroom. This also reflects negatively on the students' abilities to concentrate and to be attentive in the classroom (NCERD 1988: 18–30).

Classroom's high density also increases the number of failures and tempts many students to abscond, as the classroom does not offer proper pedagogical content.

Inefficiency of the Qualitative Aspects of the Educational Buildings

The school is a minimized society, which includes an educational building as well as intra and extra curricular activities like indoor playing grounds and theatres, ... etc. Schools have to be appropriate to the surrounding environment. This fact however is rarely taken into account and only in schools of privileged areas where certain classrooms are designed for educational activities. This of course results in increasing the students' density in other classrooms within the same school. The majority of schools are built based on a standard model that focuses on learning within the classroom walls.

Furthermore, the schools allocate certain classrooms for the school management (the headmaster room, the teachers' room, the deputy headmaster room, ... etc), which also results in increasing the students' density in the other classrooms. The end result is weak academic achievements of students and a higher rate of absconding in comparison with other schools. The direct results of the previous problems are a low level of quantity education (failure and absconding) as well as a low level of quality education (undesired academic achievements).

Poor distribution of Schools

The ineffective investment of building schools is very much tied to the poor distribution of schools. There is a constant population growth in many areas where the educational requirements are not met. For instance there are certain areas where the educational scale is incomplete. Other areas may suffer from a shortage in schools in a specific educational phase where students have to commute a distance exceeding 4 kms to join the sought school. The problem is especially acute when it involves children at the primary phase as it directly affects their academic achievement and encourages them to abscond or discontinue their school education.

The misdistribution of schools has especially affected the enrolment of girls in basic education in rural and remote areas especially in Port Sa'id Governorate where the girls' enrolment rate is much lower than in Cairo or in the north of Egypt.

The Inadequacy of School Buildings

Given the high depreciation rate of school buildings, which is caused by applying more than one study shift in each school and by lack of periodical maintenance, the buildings have become inappropriate for utilization.

Table 52: Inadequacy of school buildings

Status	% of total schools
- School buildings that are completely inappropriate:	7
- School buildings that are partially inappropriate:	13
- Inappropriate maintenance:	20
Total inappropriate school buildings	40

Source: National Planning Institute, 1995, 114.

Lack of financial allocations for periodical maintenance is one of the main factors for the inadequacy of school buildings. This problem has negative impacts on both teachers' performance and students' achievements as they are in a physically improper environment. Table 53 shows the schools that underwent maintenance and the financial allocations for that purpose during the period (1993/94 – 98/99).

Table 53: School Maintenance and Financial Allocations (1993/94– 1998/99)

Years	No. of Maintained Schools	Total Financial Allocations (Million LE)
1993/94	3,000	10
1994/95	3,421	100
1995/96	3,211	100
1996/97	3,595	100
1987/98	3,000	100
1998/99	3,000	100

Source: MOE: The Achievements of the General Authority for Educational Buildings, Cairo, 2000).

Table 53 shows that an average of 3,200 schools were maintained at a total average cost of 100 million pounds during the periods of time indicated above. The maintenance cost per school was 3,121 pounds, an amount that is in no way adequate given the status quo of the school buildings (renovation/constructing demolishing parts of the building).

Managing the Financial Resources Within Schools

This part of the study analyzed the process of obtaining budgets and the expenditure process within schools at different educational phases by analyzing the following issues:

- Methodology of obtaining budgets and expenditure within schools;
- Distribution of budget revenues and expenditure within schools;
- Examples of disbursement and expenditure in some schools;
- The main problems facing the financial statement of public schools;
- Suggested solutions to face up to the disbursement and expenditure problems.

Method of Disbursement and Expenditure in Public Schools

Disbursement and expenditure in public schools are done by means of three resources:

1. Students' Fees and fines are collected from students at the different educational phases against extra services that are offered to them in addition to insurances against using tools and equipments. Any other kind of fees, fines, subscriptions or extra services cannot be collected under any title unless supported by a Ministerial resolution. School districts receive the disbursement procedures from the revenues according to the needs and requirements of the heads of departments in the MOE Secretariat.
2. Collecting subscriptions and extra services fees from students in public schools.
3. Allocating the outcome of subscriptions, fines and fees pooled from schools to the school districts, the Directorates and the public administration at MOE's Secretariat. (MOE 1999).

Important Instructions to be considered in Collecting Fees from Students

- Subscriptions and extra services fees are not to be collected from special education schools and from single-classroom schools for girls.
- Subscriptions and extra services fees are not to be collected from kinder gardens annexed to schools.
- Extra fees are to be collected from those pursuing secondary education, the five-year-technical schools, and from students joining any school grade (excluding 1st grade) i.e. those who expatriated to other Arab countries and returned to Egypt.

- The prices of the evaluation manuals are collected from the students of public and private schools only from those at the 4th and 5th grades, preparatory schools, and secondary schools who wish to obtain the manuals.
- The extra services fees and subscriptions can be collected on two instalments for the students who wish so. The first instalment is to be paid at the beginning of the academic year, and the second one is to be paid at the beginning of the second term of the same year.
- The general examinations fees and those of are to be collected from the first appliers only; and no fees are to be collected upon the second examination only in the following general education schools: (previous reference, 4)

  - Public schools
  - Private schools
  - Fees from incoming students
  - Public examinations fees
  - Fines
  - Student's re-registration fee

The revenues of the above fees collected from students in public and private schools are distributed among the school, the school district, the Directorate and the public administration at MOE's Secretariat to be spent in the public schools in Egypt. The disbursement and expenditure methodology in public schools turns to be quite effective after looking at the Ministerial resolution No. 432 dated 18 August 1999 with regard to the identification and collection of fees and fines from students at all education levels in the academic year 1999/2000.

Distribution and Disbursement of Budgets Resources

After collecting the fees from students, a percentage is calculated and allocated for expenditure on extra services and activities in schools as per the Ministerial resolution No. 432 of 1999. Following is the distribution of the budget in public schools of all the education levels: primary, preparatory, secondary general, secondary technical and education districts:

- Parents Council 85 per cent, administration 15 per cent
- Students Union 50 per cent, school and administration 50 per cent
- Labs 100 per cent for administration
- Social activities 70 per cent, school and administration 30 per cent
- Sport activities 70 per cent, school and administration 30 per cent
- Art activities (data not available), School and administration 30 per cent

- Cultural activities: 100 per cent for administration
- Machinery (for technical schools) 35 per cent for school, 65 per cent for administration
- Accidents 100 per cent for administration
- Evaluation Manuals 100 per cent for administration
- Stamp, books and professional syndicate 100 per cent for administration
- Technological development 100 per cent for administration
- Examinations services (e.g. response sheets, glue, printing expenses, seat numbers) 20 per cent for school, 80 per cent for administration
- Maintenance and buildings (e.g. repairing school buildings, repairing school furniture) 30 per cent for schools, 70 per cent for administration
- Maintenance of equipments 100 per cent for administration
- Orphans care 100 per cent administration
- Generation care 100 per cent
- Health insurance 100 per cent for administration

It is clear that the biggest bulk of the budget comes from the collection of fees and subscriptions, which is distributed primarily to the Parents Council by 85 per cent followed by the rest of the activities (social, sport, art) by 70 per cent. The Students Union takes 50 per cent of the collected fees, the machines 35 per cent followed by maintenance 30 per cent and finally 20 per cent goes to examinations services which is a very low percentage for school activities.

It is also clear that certain amounts are allocated in full to the Educational Administration leaving nothing to schools like the labs, cultural activities, accidents, evaluation manuals, stamps, books, professional syndicate, technological development, maintenance of equipments, orphans care, health insurance. On the other hand there are other amounts that are allocated in full to the school like the Parents Council, Students Union, social and sport activities, art activities, machinery and examinations services.

The fiscal year for the revenues starts at the beginning of September each year and ends at the end of August of the following year. It entails the following:

i. Submitting the collected revenues to be controlled by a representative of the Ministry of Finance who co-signs the checks after the General Supervisor or the First Supervisor depending on the jobs of the Directorates and Educational Administrations.
ii. The Financial and Administrative Control of the Directorate and the Educational Administrations follow up on the collection of fees,

subscriptions and extra services fees and ensure their distribution to the right party in the right predetermined quota.

iii. Keeping the revenues in public banks.

iv. The school financial statement includes the current year statement; the brought forward balance, the collected revenues, the cumulative balance, disbursements and the remaining balance.

The collected revenues of the whole year are added up to the brought forward balance of previous years. Disbursement vouchers make disbursement until the end of the academic year through the summer vacation ending with the fiscal year. Disbursed amounts are deducted from the total collected revenues (collected revenues + previous balance). The resulting balance is carried forward for next academic year.

The revenues are generally insufficient to spend on educational activities throughout the academic year due to the small number of students who pay in full as the majority pays partially. Field studies in public schools showed that the revenues are meagre considering the requirements of the extra services especially maintenance and renovation which badly need further donations and personal efforts.

Examples of Disbursement and Expenditure in Schools

Following are examples of some public schools revealing the followed method for disbursement and expenditure:

Ashshaheed Tayyar School / Banha (Elementary Education)
Kindergarten – Primary – Preparatory:

The number of students in the mentioned school is 313. The school budget is distributed as follows:

• Parents Council	946 Pounds	Subsidized
• Students Union	202 Pounds	Subsidized
• Social Activities	243 Pounds	
• Sport Activities	300 Pounds	
• Art Activities	500 Pounds	
• Library Activities	400 Pounds	
• Examinations Services	100 Pounds	
• Building Maintenance	790 Pounds	
Total	3481 Pounds	

The largest allocation is for Parents Council. Allocations for other items have to go through the approval of the Administrative Council then that of the relevant educational administration.

Talaat Harb Commercial School / Za'zee' (for Girls)

The school budget depends on the revenues from students' fees and subscriptions, which amounts to 12 thousand pounds approximately. The school receives 4,400 pounds from these revenues. The school budget is distributed as follows:

• Parents Council	1500 Pounds	Subsidized
• Students Union	310 Pounds	Subsidized
• Social Activities	290 Pounds	
• Sport Activities	400 Pounds	
• Art Activities	600 Pounds	
• Library Activities	350 Pounds	
• Examinations Services	200 Pounds	
• Building Maintenance	400 Pounds	
• Machines Repair	250 Pounds	
• Stamps	100 Pounds	
Total	4400 Pounds	

The parents Council receive the biggest allocation from the budget. The revenues from which the school benefits are insufficient due to the frequent maintenance needed in this kind of education where the allocation for maintenance is inadequate. Furthermore, the budget does not cater for "stores", which is a big item that does not even exist in the school budget.

Za'zee' Industrial Secondary School

The school collects 1,300 L.E. of which 6,350 L.E. remain for the school budget. Each workshop in the school requires a budget of its own. More so given the deficiency of equipments and technical supplies. The items of the electronic workshops are very limited for what they actually require in practice. Moreover the labs are not catered for by the budget and they largely depend on donations from the Parents Council.

The school budget is distributed as follows:

• Parents Council	1800 Pounds	Subsidized
• Students Union	400 Pounds	Subsidized
• Social Activities	350 Pounds	
• Sport Activities	380 Pounds	
• Art Activities	700 Pounds	
• Library Activities	370 Pounds	
• Examinations Services	400 Pounds	
• Building Maintenance	700 Pounds	
• Machines Repair	800 Pounds	
• Stamps	150 Pounds	
• Repairs	300 Pounds	
Total	6350 Pounds	

Za'zee' Agricultural Secondary School

The school budget is very limited and depends on revenues from student fees and it amounts to 3447 pounds. The school budget is distributed as follows:

• Parents Council	850 Pounds
• Students Union	450 Pounds
• Social Activities	243 Pounds
• Sport Activities	200 Pounds
• Art Activities	300 Pounds
• Library Activities	427 Pounds
• Examinations Services	150 Pounds
• Building Maintenance	405 Pounds
• Machines Repair	280 Pounds
• Stamps	120 Pounds
Total	3,425 Pounds

Furthermore, the school building is always in need of more support especially for maintenance and equipment.

The Main Problems Facing the Financial Statement of Public Schools:

1. There is no telephone item in the budget and it is usually covered by donations from the Parents Council or from the schoolteachers themselves.
2. A high percentage of public schools lack electricity and water due to lack of maintenance funds.
3. Allocations for furniture repair (carpentry, wages) are meagre, and buildings and equipments do not exceed 30 per cent.
4. Lack of raw materials because the allocated fund goes to the administration.
5. The increase in the number of students is not met by an increase in the number of schools owing to lack of financial resources.
6. The allocations for the hospitality item and for postage are very meagre.
7. The educational administration holds up any financial support requested by the school.
8. Two thirds of the students are exempted from fees, which adds an extra financial burden on the school as to covering the different school activities.
9. Specifying the legal status of the supplies' bills slows down the disbursement process. In order to settle a bill the following two conditions have to be met.
10. Any invoice exceeding 10 pounds has to have a tax card, a tax file, the detailed address of the supplier, and the percentage of the due tax. This measure represents a nuisance to the supplier because he is thus claiming a tax liability, which he would rather not reveal.
11. Certain services, such as repairs and minor maintenance, are offered to the school by simple technicians who are not accountable because they do not hold a legal premise nor do they keep official bills or a tax file.

Suggested Solutions for Education Expenditure Problems in Schools:

In an effort to face up to the mentioned problems, the school Headmasters:

1. Collect donations in kind such as fans, chairs, papers, stamps, ... etc when the student applies for registration at the school.
2. Shift an activity's budget item to another one like the Parents Council (which is the highest budget item) after obtaining the approval of the

School Administration and the educational administration.

3. Collect donations from the Parents Council (in kind or in cash) for which receipts are provided.
4. Requests service providers or suppliers to write a receipt to the school annexed with a photocopy of his ID, which are submitted to the tax department for accountability and the legal status of certain bills. As such the school is covered and the service provider is accountable by tax.

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